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RECREATION LEADERSHIP: HISTORICAL ANALYTICAL REVIEW AND AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

by

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A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH IN
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
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IN
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OUTDOOR RECREATION

February 10, 1984

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Dear Sirs:

In the Spring of 1982, I completed my Ph.D. thesis with the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research at the University of Alberta in Edmonton, Alberta, Canada. The title of my thesis is "Recreation Leadership: Historical Analytic Review and an Empirical Study".

I visited your campus in May, 1980, to discuss various concerns regarding the thesis, Of special concern to me was obtaining permission to utilise the L.B.D.Q.-Form XII (Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire-Form XII) in gathering data for the empirical aspect of my study. Your staff person was most cooperative, handed me a copy of the document "Statement of Policy" concerning the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire and Related Forms, and wished me well. I believed that I paid close attention to all six items contained in the Statement of Policy, particularly item 3: Duplication, item 4: Inclusion in dissertations, and item 5: Copyright.

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Yours sincerely,

Lisle A Thomson

Lisle A. Thomson, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
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February 22, 1984

Mr. Lisle A. Thomson
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Sincerely yours,

PM Carroll

Philip M. Carroll
Director

PMC
ahr

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RECREATIONAL LEADERSHIP:
HISTORICAL ANALYTICAL REVIEW
AND AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

by

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1982

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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External Examiner

Date Feb. 15, 1982.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents: the late Ian Gordon Thomson, ingenious engineer, and Mary Ethel Thomson, loyal and devoted to the family.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to examine the nature of leadership in the recreation field.

To this end reviews of recreation leadership literature and leadership literature from other fields were conducted along with an examination of leadership in public recreation agencies in the Province of Alberta, Canada. Various sub-problems relating to the descriptions of leadership by writers of leadership literature and by leaders and participants of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes, were developed and tested.

Descriptions of leadership were examined through definitions and by theories of leadership which emphasized the individual, the group, and the environment found in both sets of literature. The relationships between training, experience, and skills and leadership were examined also. The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII was utilized to gather data pertaining to leadership in the recreation field. The data generated, as well as demographic data concerning the programme leaders, were subjected to various statistical procedures and analysed.

The various definitions of leadership found in the recreation leadership literature, although not identical, were found to be similar to those expressed in the non-recreation leadership literature.

No precise theories of leadership were found to be peculiar to the recreation leadership literature. Most of the writing in recreation leadership literature emphasizes individual leader characteristics

and leader behaviour in the normative vein. The influence of trait theory is considerable in the recreation leadership literature though democratic styles of leadership are encouraged. Group process theories of leadership have been influential in guiding authors of recreation leadership literature to encourage group-oriented behaviour in the pursuit of desirable goals. Environmental theories of leadership have not gone unnoticed by recreation writers and tend to be included in current texts. Where trait and behavioural theories have tended to lose support in the non-recreation leadership literature, their presence continues in the recreation leadership literature, alongside later theories of leadership. Writers of recreation leadership literature tend to draw from other fields to support their own conceptions of leadership.

Training and experience were not found to be strongly associated with leadership in the non-recreation literature. In the recreation literature, they appear to be essential in the preparation for and the maintenance of recreation leadership. The possession of executive, supervisory, managerial, technical, and human-relations skills is recognized in both sets of literature as important for leadership positions. Human-relations skills, however, appear to be considered as more valuable in the recreation leadership literature. The notion of the "acquisition of skills" as synonymous with leadership distinguishes recreation leadership literature from leadership literature in other fields.

The LBDQ - Form XII was found to be suitable for measuring

leadership in the recreation field. Consideration by the leader was found to be a weak factor in recreation leadership, whereas representation, role definition and clarification, tolerance of member freedom of action, pushing for production output, and influence with superiors were stronger.

Experience was found to be associated with production orientated and task-orientated leadership behaviour. Academic qualifications and training were found to be associated with the leader's sense of self-assurance, but were not influential in affecting the participants' descriptions of leadership.

The results of the empirical aspects of the study tend to contradict the content of recreation leadership literature. Where recreation authors call for group-centred, idealistic, democratic leadership, leaders and participants tend to describe leadership as leader-centred and task-orientated in the field of practice.

Further study is required to assess the effects of personality characteristics, leader consideration, academic training and work experience at all levels of leadership in the recreation field. Also, a review of terminology is required.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Much appreciation is expressed for the extraordinary patience and continued support provided by the members of the theses committee: Dr. R.P. Heron (Chairman), Dr. R. Alderman, Dr. C. Bumbarger, Dr. H.A. Scott, and Dr. M. Smith. The perseverance, patience, guidance, and extreme loyalty of Dr. Heron are part of his generous contribution which was exemplary in nature.

Special thanks are extended to Dr. T. Maguire, who provided valuable assistance regarding the statistical analysis throughout the study.

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With much appreciation, I thank the Alberta Recreation and Parks Department for the financial assistance required to conduct the study.

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Finally, extreme gratitude is expressed to my wife Margaret and the children, who have all been deprived of a complete family life over the years.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

The essential features of the study are introduced in this chapter. After a general background statement, the remaining sections outline the purpose of the study, and justification for examining recreation leadership. The limitations and delimitations of the study are stated and the basic terms employed in the study are defined. The chapter concludes with an outline of the organization of the study.

Background

The phenomenon of leadership has interested philosophers, anthropologists, animal psychologists, human psychologists, social-psychologists and sociologists for a considerable time. Government personnel, educators, recreationists, members of the armed forces, corporations and various other groups and organizations have all been interested in leadership for their own purposes. According to Gibb (1969:9), "leadership is a matter that concerns every member of society."

Members of the recreation field and writers of recreation literature agree that leadership occupies a place of importance in the provision of adequate recreation services. Meyer and Brightbill (19565:157) stated emphatically that "the success of organized recreation depends more upon its leaders than any other factor."

In 1957, Joseph Prentegast was adamant that the leader was most important to the field of recreation. He claimed that:

> There is no substitute for qualified leadership, and any compromise in this matter is false economy. The best leadership possible is none too good to guide and serve the leisure-time interests of the American people (Butler, 1967:105).

Rivers (1956:112) of the National Recreation Association iterated that:

> . . . recreation has become widely recognized as one of the main divisions of life. It ranks with work, worship, learning, and, therefore, requires comparable leadership . . . . Fortunately, our local authorities - the public generally - now accept the point of view that of all essentials for a good recreation department, leadership is the most important, and that quality leadership is the best investment and only assurance of an adequate, economical, and satisfactory recreation service.

Other recreation texts, journals and periodical contributors echo the above sentiments (Edginton, Compton, and Hanson, 1980; Tillman, 1973).

The phenomenon of leadership has been studied intensively since the nineteenth century (Gibb, 1969; Gouldner, 1950; Reddin, 1970; Stogdill, 1974) and is still under investigation (Hunt and Larson, 1979). Leadership in the recreation field has, as yet, been relatively unresearched (van der Smissen, 1970), although reference to the topic by writers of recreation leadership literature is of regular occurrence.

This study investigated the nature and scope of recreation leadership through (1) an examination of the concept or concepts found in recreation leadership literature and (2) an examination of the empirical descriptions of leadership given both by leaders of municipal recreation programmes and by participants in those programmes.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to conduct an examination of the nature of leadership in the recreation field. The overall problem which the study investigated was: How is recreation leadership described by writers of recreation leadership literature and by empirical data? Also investigated were sub-problems relating to the relationships between recreation leadership literature and other leadership literature (non-recreation leadership literature), empirical descriptions of leadership by leaders of municipal recreation programmes and by their programme participants, and the effects on leadership of leader's age, sex, instructional experience, and academic qualifications.

Justification for the Study

> Today, urbanization demands recreation leadership (Weckwerth, 1960:135).
>
> Without good leadership, well-educated and professionally qualified, there can never be worthwhile recreational programmes (Shivers, 1963: 277).
>
> Leadership. Here is the real lifeblood of any profession. Problems of professionals' preparation, job-analysis, recruitment, certification, and leadership methodology have received too little attention to date from researchers (Gabrielson and Larson, 1958:28).

The above statements are around twenty years old. However, similar comments will be found in current recreation literature:

> Recreation as a field has been rather weak in conducting research and study (Weiskopf, 1975:317).
>
> All aspects of the recreational service system should be thoroughly analyzed (Hjelte and Shivers, 1978:206).
>
> In spite of the vital and dynamic role the recreation leader plays in shaping the lives of others and in spite of the awareness of his unique worth among educators, in reality scanty attention has been given to the pre-employment or in-service training necessary for this important work. Leaders need to be better selected, better trained in schools and colleges as well as on the job and helped more to view themselves and their work objectively (Vannier, 1977:365).

> An understanding of the nature and the art of leadership can enable the recreation professional to be more efficient in the performance of his or her job (Sessoms and Stevenson, 1981:22).

From the above sets of quotations it may be concluded that, although leadership has been considered to be important to the development of needed recreation programmes for some time, an insufficient amount of research has been conducted into the nature of recreation leadership and into the problems of selecting and training leaders who will perform effectively on the job. This study seems to make a contribution to recreation leadership research, may assist students of recreation leadership to obtain a better understanding of the phenomenon of recreation leadership, and will point out areas of interest for future investigations. Municipal recreation departments and other recreation agencies may find the study beneficial for the purposes of policy development, problem dissipation, selection and training of leaders, and programme operation.

Delimitations of the Study

This study was delimited in three ways: (1) the study was conducted in the field of municipal recreation, (2) the numbers of leaders selected could not be considered as representative of all recreation leaders, (3) one instrument to measure leadership behaviour was selected to gather data.

1. The phenomenon of leadership has been investigated in the fields of education, industry, the military, and politics. The study was delimited to examining the functional aspect of the recreation field of service, whereas the recreation leadership literature refers

to at least two other levels (supervisory and executive) (Shivers, 1963). The functional aspect of the recreation field of service examined was that found in eight municipal recreation departments in the Province of Alberta, Canada , in 1977.

2. There are over 100 municipal recreation departments in the province of Alberta which employ recreation leaders to conduct recreation programmes for the general public. This study examined 15 recreation programmes offered by eight municipal recreation departments. Furthermore, of all the possible enrollees in each programme, ten participants were selected to complete the necessary questionnaires.

3. The LBDQ - Form XII is one of many leadership measuring instruments (see Chapter 3).

Limitations of the Study

Two limitations of this study relate to the use of the LBDQ - Form XII.

Firstly, respondents to the questionnaire expressed their perceptions of what the leaders' behaviours were. Pickard (in Ratsoy, Holdaway, and Miklos, 1974:85) suggested that responses to the LBDQ instruments were "subject to interpersonal distortions such as selective perception." Brown (1968:33), however, stated that something could be learned of leadership from perceptions of leaders and programme participants because of a basic assumption "that a perception of another person is a function of both the sender (leader) and receiver (follower) of the percept." Also, users of the LBDQ - Form XII assume that how a leader really behaves is less important than how the participants perceive he behaves (Brown, 1968). What influences participants' actions is their perception of the leader's behaviour. Ultimately the perceived behaviour is what may be called "leadership."

A second limitation of this study caused by using the LBDQ - Form XII instrument is that such an instrument records behavioural acts at a particular point in time. If leadership "is a complex process of behavioural acts which occur over time," then the instrument yields "results that are a less than accurate assessment" (Pickard, 1974:86) of the phenomenon. Pickard found support from Greenfield (1968:72) who stated, "the LBDQ is designed to slice through an organization and describe conditions at a fixed point in time." Pickard (1974:87) went on to point out that "the undesirable consequences of using an instrument designed to assess a phenomenon at a point in time, when, in fact, the phenomenon occurs over time, could be attenuated by repeated observation." The study employed the LBDQ - Form XII only once to gain descriptions of leader behaviour by leaders and by their programme participants.

A further limitation of this study is its generalizability. The 15 recreation programmes from eight-municipal recreation departments examined in this study were not randomly selected, rather they were selected because they met the selection criteria chosen for this study. The results of this study may or may not reflect the results of similar studies conducted at other times with other recreation programmes, either municipal or otherwise, within the Province of Alberta, within other provinces in Canada, or elsewhere.

Definition of Terms

Key terms relating to leadership behaviour and the empirical aspects of this study are addressed or defined in this section.

Leadership and Recreation Leadership: "There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (Stogdill, 1974:7). Stogdill's comprehensive study of the various aspects of leadership led him to the above conclusion. "Nevertheless," he continued, "there is sufficient similarity between definitions to permit a rough scheme of classification" (1974:7). Stogdill (1974) classified the definitions of leadership revealed by his research, into the following 11 categories:

1) Leadership as a focus of group processes.
2) Leadership as personality and its effects.
3) Leadership as the art of inducing compliance.
4) Leadership as the exercise of influence.
5) Leadership as act or behaviour.
6) Leadership as a form of persuasion.
7) Leadership as a power relation.
8) Leadership as an instrument of goal achievement.
9) Leadership as an effect of interaction.
10) Leadership as a differentiated role.
11) Leadership as the initiation of structure.

Stogdill recognized that many definitions of leadership could be classified in two or three of the above categories.

This study does not establish a single definition of the term leadership. It is concerned with reviewing leadership literature and reporting a definition or definitions of recreation leadership therein.

The empirical aspect of this study, however, utilized the LBDQ - Form XII to gather data on recreation leadership. Therefore, the operational definition of "leadership" is that which is described by the LBDQ - Form XII. Further terms used are operationally defined as follows:

Recreation Leader: A person employed by a municipal recreation department to conduct a programme of activities at the face-to-face participant level.

Qualified Recreation Leader: A leader who has had at least two years of training at a tertiary educational institution.

Less-Qualified Recreation Leader: A leader who has had less than two years' experience at a tertiary educational institution.

Experienced Recreation Leader: A leader who has had at least two years' experience in conducting recreation programmes for the general public.

Less-Experienced Recreation Leader: A leader who has had less than two years' experience conducting recreation programmes for the general public.

Recreation Programme: A series of activities organized and conducted by a leader for members of the general public. For the purposes of this study only recreation programmes with enrollments of ten or more participants and conducted for at least half of their scheduled meetings were considered.

Participant: Any person enrolled in a recreation programme conducted by a recreation leader.

Municipal Recreation Department: An organizational structure established by a local municipal council to provide recreation services to its constituents.

LBDQ - Form X11: The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form X11 developed by the staff members of the Ohio State University Leadership Studies and revised by the Bureau of Business Recearch, College of Commerce and Administration, the Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, U.S.A., 1962.

Study Outline

Chapter 2 contains the results of the review of the literature on leadership but does not include a review of the recreation leadership literature. Various definitions of leadership are organized according to Stogdill's (1974) categorization of definitions. Leadership theories are reviewed as they relate to the individual, the group, and the environment (surroundings in which the leadership takes place). Aspects of the literature relating to leadership training, experience, and skills also are reported.

Chapter 3 consists of a review of recreation leadership literature. Definitions of leadership found in the review are reported according to Stogdill's (1974) system of categorization. The leadership theories, or commentaries on leadership theories, found in the recreation leadership literature are categorized according to the individual, the group, and the environment. Aspects of the literature relating to leadership training, experience and skills are included also. Any aspects of recreation leadership which differ from aspects of leadership reported in Chapter 2 are presented and discussed.

Chapter 4 consists of a presentation of the methods and procedures adopted to conduct the empirical aspects of this study. These procedures and the characteristics of the respondents are discussed. The instruments employed are explained and a general overview of leadership measurement devices and criticisms of these devices are reported. Included is an analysis of the LBDQ - Form X11 as to its suitability in the recreation setting. A more comprehensive display of the overall problem and accompanying sub-problems are discussed in the same chapter. Hypotheses formulated for testing by this study are presented towards the end of the chapter.

Chapter 5 presents the findings and results for each sub-problem investigated by the study.

Chapter 6 presents a detailed comparison of the results of the leadership literature reviews and the results of the empirical investigations.

In Chapter 7, a summary of the findings and conclusions reached is presented, along with recommendations for practice and further research.

Chapter 8 presents the conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LEADERSHIP LITERATURE

This chapter consists of a review of the literature discussing leadership. It attempts to show that writings on the topic of leadership are not recent phenomena, even though most literature on leadership has been developed during the twentieth century.

The purpose of this review is twofold. The first part shows that there are several notions respecting leadership. The second part illustrates the various ways in which leadership is described in the non-recreation literature. This chapter is presented, first, through acknowledging the various definitions of leadership. Secondly, the beginnings of the social-psychological study of leadership will be discussed in the form of a brief history. Finally, the study of leadership is reported in terms of theory development. A variety of methods ranging from chronologies to schools of though have been used to report leadership theory development. This review will utilize areas of emphasis to highlight theory development. The areas of emphasis will be: 1) the individual, 2) the group, and 3) the environment. The chapter concludes with a look at the prospects for the future study of leadership.

Introduction

A review of leadership literature is not new. Bird (1940), Gibb (1947), Stogdill (1948), Myer (1954), Mann (1959), Stogdill again in 1970 and 1974, and Hunt, Osborn and Schriesheim (1978) have all completed impressive works. Stogdill's (1974) work stands out as a mammoth accomplishment, providing not only a milestone, but a magnificant sign post to guide his fellow researchers towards a greater understanding of the phenomenon of leadership.

In reviewing such secondary and tertiary sources of general literature on leadership for this study, it is noticeable that the phenomenon of leadership is explained in two ways. One way is by definition of either a leader or leadership, and the other is by examining theories. To indicate the content of the two methods of explanation, Table 1 (Definitions) and Figure 1 (Theories) were developed. The source for Table 1 is Stogdill's (1974:7-16) work. The Table is a synthesis and ordering of this work and is used to set the stage for reporting the results of this study's review of the general literature on leadership.

Definitions of Leadership

Definitions and conceptions of leadership have been reviewed by such people as Morris and Seeman (1950), Shartle (1951, 1956), Carter (1953), Gibb (1950, 1969), and Bass (1960). Stogdill has reviewed most of the research and theory pertaining to leadership up to 1974 and has noticed that leadership has been defined or conceptualized as a focus of group processes, as personality and its effects, as the art of inducing compliance, as the exercise of influence, as an art or behaviour, as a form of persuasion, as an instrument of goal achievement, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role, and as the initiation of structure (Stogdill,

Table 1

Some Definitions and Conceptions of Leadership According to Category, Author and Date Cited by Stogdill (1974:7-15)

Category	Definition	Author	Date
As a focus of group process	The leader is always the nucleus of a tendency, and . . . all social movements. . . consist of tendencies having such nuclei.	Cooley	1902
	Leadership is the preeminence of one or a few individuals in a group in the process of control of societal phenomena.	Mumford	1906 1907
	Leadership is the centralization of effort of one person as an expression of the power of all.	Blackmar	1911
	Leadership is a point of polarization for group cooperation.	Chapin	1924
	The leader is influenced by the needs and wishes of the group members and focuses the attention and releases the energies of group members in a desired direction.	Bernard	1927
	The leader may not be separated from the group, but may be treated as a position of high potential in the field.	Brown	1936
	The leader is a central or focal person who integrates the group.	Redl	1942

Table 1

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author	Date
	The leader by virtue of his special position in the group serves as a primary agent for the determination of group structure, group atmosphere, group goals, group ideology, and group activities.	Kretch and Crutchfield	1948
	When conceived in terms of dynamics of human social behaviour, leadership is a function of needs existing within a given situation and consists of a relationship between an individual and a group.	Knickerbocker	1948
As personality and its effects	A leader is a person who is more than ordinarily efficient in carrying psychological stimuli to others and is thus effective in conditioning collective responses.	Bernard	1926
	Leadership is the amount of personality attributed to an individual estimated by the degree of influence he can exert upon others.	Bowden	1926
	A leader is a person who possesses the greatest number of desirable traits of personality and character.	Bingham (Kilbourne)	1927 (1935)
	Leadership is the creating and setting forth of exceptional behaviour patterns in such a way that other persons respond to them.	Bogardus	1929

Table 1

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author	Date
	Leadership is a combination of traits which enables an individual to induce others to accomplish a given task.	Tead	1929
	Leadership is a personality and a group phenomenon. It is also a social process involving a number of persons in mental contact in which one person assumes dominance over the others.	Bogardus	1934
As the art of inducing compliance	Leadership is the ability to handle men so as to achieve the most with the least friction and the greatest cooperation.	Munson	1921
	Leadership is the creative and directive force of morale.	Munson	1921
	Leadership means direct, face-to-face contact between leader and followers; it is personal social contact.	Allport	1924
	Leadership is the ability to impress the will of the leader on those led and induce obedience, respect, loyalty, and cooperation.	Stewart (cited by Moore)	1927
	Leadership is the art of inducing others to do what one wants them to do.	Bundel	1930

Table 1

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author	Date
	Leadership is the imposition, maintenance and direction of moral unity to our ends.	Phillips	1939
	A leader is one who guides and directs other people.	Allen	1958
	Leadership is the process by which an agent induces a subordinate to behave in a desired manner.	Bennis	1959
As the exercise of influence	Leadership implies influencing change in the conduct of people.	Nash	1929
	Leadership is the activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal which they come to find as desirable.	Tead	1935
	Leadership is the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and achievement.	Stogdill	1950
	Direct leadership is an interaction process in which an individual, usually through the medium of speech, influences the behaviour of others toward a particular end.	Haiman	1951
	A leader is an individual who exercises positive influence acts upon others.	Shartle	1951

Table 1

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author	Date
	Leadership is interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation and directed through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals.	Tannenbaum, Weschler and Massarik	1961
	"Attempted" leadership is an individual's effort to change the behaviour of others.	Bass	1961
	"Successful" leadership is the creation of actual change in the behaviour of others.	Bass	1961
	"Effective" leadership is the achievement of behaviour change in others which is reinforced or rewarded.	Bass	1961
	Leadership is equated with the "domain of influence."	Cartwright	1965
	Leadership in the broadest sense implies the presence of a particular influence relationship between two or more persons.	Hollander and Julian	1965
	The essence of organizational leadership is the influential compliance with routine directions of the organization.	Katz and Kahn	1966
An an act or behaviour	Leadership may be defined as the behaviour of an individual while he is involved in directing group activities.	Hemphill	1949

Table 1

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author	Date
	A leadership act is one which results in others acting or responding in a shared direction.	Shartle	1956
	By leadership behaviour we generally mean the particular acts in which a leader engages in the course of directing and coordinating the work of his group members. This may involve such arts as structuring the work relations, praising or criticizing group members, and showing consideration for their welfare and feelings.	Fiedler	1967
As a form of persuasion	Leadership is the management of men by persuasion and inspiration rather than by the direct implied threat of coercion. It involves immediate concrete problems by applying knowledge of, and sympathy with human factors.	Schenk	1928
	Leadership indicates the ability to influence men and secure results through emotional appeals rather than through the exercise of authority.	Cleeton and Mason	1934
	Leadership is the art of dealing with human nature.	Copeland	1942
	It is the art of influencing a body of people by persuasion or example to follow a line of action. Leadership is the activity of persuading people to cooperate in the achievement of a common objective.	Koontz and O'Donnell	1955

Table 1

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author	Date
As a power relation	A leader is an initiator of an interaction, who, in giving a stimulus to another person, would be asserting his control to interfering with that other person's original course of action.	Smith	1948
	Leadership, most broadly conceived, is a relation between leader and led in which the leader influences more than he is influenced: because of the leader, those who are led act or feel differently than they otherwise would. As a power relation, leadership may be known to both leader and led, or unknown to either or both.	Gerth and Willis	1953
	Leadership as a form of relationship between persons requires that one or several persons act in conformance with the request of another.	Warriner	1955
	Leadership may be defined in terms of differential power relationships among members of a group. Interpersonal power is conceived as a resultant of the maximum force which A can induce on B minus the maximum resisting force which B can mobilize in the opposite direction. There are five bases of power, viz. referent power (liking), expert power, reward power, coercive power, and legitimate power.	Raven and French	1958
	When the goal of one member A, is that of changing another, B, or when B's change in behaviour will reward A or reinforce A's behaviour, A's effort to obtain the goal is leadership.	Bass	1960

Table 1

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author	Date
	Leadership is a particular type of power relationship characterized by a group member's perception that another group member has the right to prescribe behaviour patterns for the former regarding his activity as a member of a particular group.	Janda	1960
As an instrument of goal achievement	A leader is a person who has a programme and is moving toward an objective with his group in a definite manner.	Cowley	1928
	Leadership is the principal dynamic force which stimulates, motivates, and coordinates the organization in the accomplishment of its objectives.	Davis	1942
	The functional relation which is leadership exists when a leader is perceived by a group as controlling means for the satisfaction of their needs.	Knickerbocker	1948
	A leader is a person who produces group syntality different from that which would have existed had he not been present in the group.	Cattell	1951
	A leader is the personal representation of the personification of common purpose not only to all who work in the undertaking, but to everyone outside it.	Urwick	1953

Table 1

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author	Date
	Leadership is the process of arranging a situation so that various members of a group, including the leader, can achieve common goals with maximum economy and a minimum of time and work.	Bellows	1959
	Leadership is the human factor which binds a group together and motivates it toward goals.	Davis	1962
As an effect of interaction	As a social process, leadership is that social instrumentation which causes a number of people to set out toward an old goal with new zest or a new goal with hopeful courage - with different persons keeping different places.	Bogardus	1929
	Leadership is a process of mutual stimulation which, by the successful interplay of individual differences, controls human energy in the pursuit of a common cause.	Pigors	1935
	A true leader in the psychological sense is one who can make the most of individual differences, who can bring out the most differences in the group and therefore reveal to the group a sounder base for defining common purposes.	Anderson	1940
	Leadership is an interpersonal relation in which others comply because they want to, not because they have to.	Merton	1969

Table 1

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author	Date
As a differentiated role	Leadership appears as a manner of interaction involving behaviour by and toward the individual "lifted" to a leader role by other individuals.	Jennings	1944
	Leadership is an interaction between a person and the group members. Each participant in this situation may be said to play a role and in some way these roles must be differentiated from each other. The basis of this differentiation is a matter of influence. The leader influences while the other persons respond.	Gordon	1955
	Leadership is a role within the scheme of relations and is defined by reciprocal expectations between the leader and other members. The leadership role is defined, as are other roles, by stabilized expectations (norms) which in most matters and situations of consequence to the group are more exacting and require greater obligations and responsibility than those for other positions.	Sherif and Sherif	1956
	Members of a group make different contributions to goal achievement. Insofar as any member's contributions are particularly indispensible they may be regarded as leaderlike; and insofar as any member is recognized by others as a dependable source of such contributions he is leaderlike. To be so recognized is equivalent to having a role relationship to other members.	Newcomb, Turner and Converse	1965

Table 1

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author	Date
As the initiation of structure	Leadership is equated with management of social differentials through the process of giving stimuli responded to integratively by other people.	Smith	1935
	Situations may be distinguished one from the other by the extent to which they are organized by one member of the group. Such organization is usually spoken of as leadership, the nature and degree of which vary in different social situations.	LaPiere and Farnsworth	1936
	When once the group's activity has become dominated by an established and accepted organization, leadership tends to disappear.	Gibb	1947
	There is a difference between a stimulus issued by a follower and one from a leader: this is the probability that the stimulus structures group behaviour. A leader's stimulus has a higher probability of structuring a group's behaviour because of a group-endowed belief that he has a legitimate source of stimuli.	Gouldner	1950
	To lead is to engage in an act that initiates a structure in the interaction as part of the process of solving a mutual problem.	Hemphill	1954
	Leadership is the initiation and maintenance of structure in expectation and interaction.	Stogdill	1959

Table 1

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author	Date
	Organizational leadership is the function of maintaining the operational effectiveness of decision-making systems which comprise the management of the organization.	Bavelas	1959

1974:7-15). Under each heading or category, he cites what he regards as appropriate definitions or conceptions and their authors. These definitions and conceptions have been reorganized in Table 1 according to category, their authors, and the year they were published.

The earlier definitions reported in Table 1 tend to identify leadership as a focus of group process and activity. The next type of definition considers leadership to be an art of inducing compliance. The most recent definitions regard leadership in terms of power differentials, role differentiation, and initiation of structure. By comparing the dates of publication, however, it will be seen that different trends of thought were taking place at the same time. According to Stogdill (1974), although a definition may enable the identification of a group leader, it may not help in the recognition of the structures and processes involved in the emergency of that leader and in the maintenance of leadership. Goal attainment and problem solving in certain definitions may indicate that leadership serves a continuing function in the group. However, "the concepts of role, position, reinforcement of behaviour, and structuring expectation serve better to account for the persistence of leadership" (Stogdill, 1974:16). Stogdill suggests that, for purposes of theory development, the definition of leadership in terms of variables which account for differentiation and maintenance of group roles is more reasonable.

Table 1 indicates that a variety of ways to describe the phenomenon of leadership has existed for some time. While "leadership" varies, approaches to its study will also vary.

A Background to the Socio-Psychological Study of Leadership

Most writers trace the origins of the examination and analysis of leadership back to the beginnings of psychology and the development of "Great Man" theories or "Trait" theories. Some suggest that man has been interested in the phenomenon of leadership for some considerable time before the advent of the discipline of psychology. Perrow (1972), suggested that man has been interested in leadership for "thousands" of years. Witter (1944) referred to the following description of a good leader attributed to the Chinese philosopher, Lao Tzu, who wrote on the topic in 604 B.C.:

> A leader is best
> When people barely know he exists
> Not so good when people obey and
> acclaim him.
> Worse when they despise him.
>
> Fail to honor people
> They fail to honor you.
>
> But of a good leader, who talks little
> When his work is done, his aim fulfilled,
> They will say,
> "We did this ourselves."
>
> (Witter, 1944:34-35)

Gibb (1969) noted that serious writings on leadership could be found among the early Greeks, and suggested that Plato's Republic was a treatise on power and leadership. In almost all literary periods, Gibb claimed, there have been political philosophers who were interested in analyzing methods of achieving, and maintaining power.

Cooper and McGaugh (1963) also claimed that people other than psychologists were interested in leadership, and stated that:

> Philosophers, historians, political theorists, theologians, and others have given much attention to this social phenomenon. Long before psychology was established as a science, scholars had developed theories of leadership (Cooper and McGaugh, 1963: 246).

Cooper and McGaugh referred to such scholars as Machiavelli of the sixteenth century, and such philosopher-statesmen as Francis Bacon and Thomas Hobbes. They claimed that these people were actively interested in leadership and engaged in writing extensively on the subject.

Jennings (1960) referred to Machiavellian theories on power and leadership and utilized Machiavelli's writings as background to his own work, An Anatomy of Leadership: Princes, Heroes, and Supermen (1960).

Other people were also interested in leadership. Terman (1904) noted that naturalists, interested in animal behaviour, showed concern with the processes of leadership and group organization occurring in various species. Terman cited his own accounts of observed animal leadership behaviour as well as reports by other scientists such as Morgan, Mill, Jordan and Espinas. Also referred to by Terman were the reports of various anthropologists' works on the study of leadership among primitive peoples. Examples included: (1) Hale's work with the Iroquois, (2) Thurn's work with the Indians of Guiana, (3) Matthew's study of the Australian Aborigines. Reference was also made to reports on the voyages of Captain James Cook into the South Pacific Ocean (Terman, 1969:69).

Columbus, Magellan, Drake, and other pioneers of "round-world" exploration brought news to the "existing" world of many strange and wondrous lands and people. Naturally, all sciences were curious to know about the expanded world. Those concerned with leadership were included. According to Gibb (1969:55):

> With exploration and world expansion came an intense interest in new and different cultures and particularly in the forms of leadership and accession to leadership encountered among previously unknown peoples.

The origins of modern day interest in the concept of leadership appear to be found in early philosophical discussions concerning the historical development of society. The two prominent and extreme points of view in these discussions have been labelled as "Great Man" theory and "Situation" theory, respectively.

According to Bass (1960:15), "Philosophers have argued for centuries the relative importance to history of 'great men' versus the situation in which they were placed." In discussing the "Great Man" theory, Bass went on to state:

> The eighteenth century rationalists believed that the personal characteristics of significant figures coupled with good luck determined the course of history. For some of the more romantic philosophers of the next century, a sudden decision by a great man could redetermine history (Bass, 1960:15).

Bass considered some exponents of the "Great Man" theory to be F. A. Wood, Nietzsche, Galton, Le Bon, Trotter, Summer, Pareto, Gasset, T. S. Elliot, and Carlyle. Of these, Carlyle who believed "a genius could contribute somehow no matter where he was found" (Bass, 1960: 15), was the most influential.

Bass (1960:16) referred to "Situation" theorists as "environmentalists." Their point of view, according to Bass, was more popular among philosophers of the day than was the "Great Man" approach. When referring to the work of Hook (1943), Bass indicated the beliefs of some exponents of "Situation" theory as follows:

> (a) For Hegel, the great man was an expression of the needs of his times. What he did was automatically correct, since he fulfilled the needs of his period. The great man could not help what he did, anyway, since he was simply an instrument of his historical environment.
>
> (b) Spencer thought that societies evolved in a uniform, gradual, progressive manner. No great man could change the course of this development.
>
> (c) To Buckle, great men were puppets of no historical significance.
>
> (d) The metaphysical doctrines of Hegel and Spencer concerning evolution and determinism were "tested" by the historical fact-finding of Marx, Engels, Plechanov, Lenin, Trotski, and Bukharin. For Engels, for example, economic necessity makes history. Men must clear obstacles from expanding production. The greater the task, the greater must be the ability of the problem-solver. But who he turns out to be is irrelevant (Bass, 1960:16).

The controversy between philosophers concerning whether the history of the world was determined by great men or as a result of circumstances and situations gave direction to the first psychologists in their investigations of leadership as one aspect of human behaviour and this gave rise to the development of a host of leadership theories.

Categories of Theories of Leadership

There are several ways of categorizing theories of leadership. Stogdill (1974) utilized "schools of thought," as did Reddin (1973), while Schriesheim (1978) related his groupings to the context. For this study, the emphasis is mixed. While the study will show the chronological order of their development, the theories reported will be grouped according to categories based on the individual, the group, and the environment. Although there are specific theories relating to each of these categories, there are other theories which are based on a combination of at least two of the categories. These are referred to in the literature as "interaction" and "contingency" theories.

Figure 1 displays the three categories as corners of a triangle. The arrows A and B indicate that some theorists regard the individual as part of a group or that the individual reacts with his environment. The arrow C attempts to show that the group reacts with the environment or that, may be, according to some theorists, the group is the environment. This complexity, illustrated by Figure 1, seems to account for the veritable plethora of theories of leadership found in the literature. For example, the "individual" category includes trait theories, behavioural theories, and leadership style. The "group" category includes group process theories and theories which regard the organization as a group. The "environment" category consists of situation theories and those theories which consider the interaction between the leader and the situation in which the leader acts. Also included in this category are "contingency" theories in which the conditions under which one kind of leader behaviour will be superior to another which influence the leader behaviour itself are examined (Hunt and Larson, 1974).

Research on leadership training and leadership experience constitutes a part of the literature, as does commentary on leadership skills. It is considered appropriate to include research findings on training and experience, and comments on leadership skill, as attributes of the "leadership theory triangle." Training and experience of

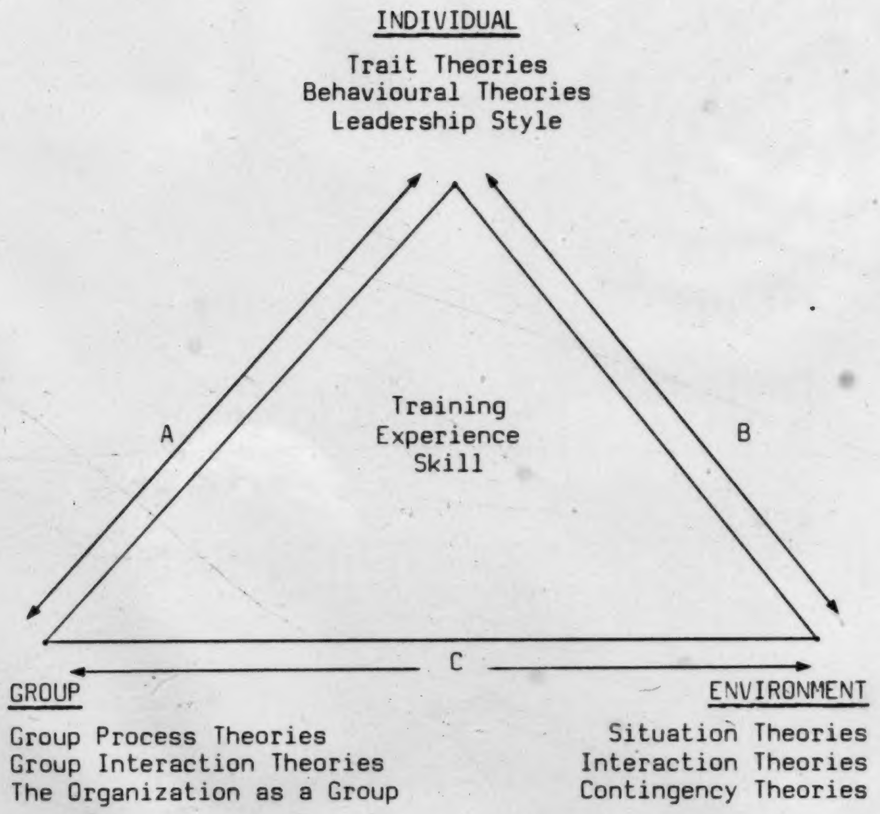
INDIVIDUAL
Trait Theories
Behavioural Theories
Leadership Style
Training
Experience
Skill
A
B
C
GROUP
Group Process Theories
Group Interaction Theories
The Organization as a Group
ENVIRONMENT
Situation Theories
Interaction Theories
Contingency Theories

Figure 1. Leadership theories categorized.

the leader are discussed as important aspects of leadership effectiveness, while skills are considered as attributes of the individual, necessary for the progress of the group, and as contingency variables in an organizational setting. Placing leadership training, experience, and skill in the centre of the triangle reflects the notion that leaders are chosen, are appointed or emerge, because of one or more of a combination of these factors.

Throughout the following discourse, brief explanations and criticisms of the various theories will be given in chronological order of their publication under the sub-categories noted in Figure 1. Thrust, content and variables considered by several theories in their placement throughout the text will be seen to be far from perfect. Their exact placement under one sub-category is well-nigh impossible. Hence there is a variety of categorization methods such as those presented by various authors, Reddin (1970), Schriesheim (1978) and Stogdill (1974).

The scheme utilized in this study to examine recreation leadership will be that presented in this chapter.

Emphasis on the Individual

The theories reported under this category emphasize the "central position" occupied by the leader in a group or organization. The sub-categories included are (1) trait theories, (2) behavioural theories, and (3) leadership style. This is a reversal of Pfeffer's (1976) categories of theoretical perspective. Not all of the literature reported here consists of theories in the "proper" sense of the word. That which is reported does serve, however, to indicate that it is difficult not to consider that the role the individual plays must have some bearing on the effectiveness of the group or organization. ". . . There is something in or about the leader that makes a difference" (Patinka, 1979:33).

Trait theories. Prevalent philosophical arguments about the "Great Man" theory led to the development of the "Trait" theory approach to the study of leadership by early psychologists. These scholars were interested in identifying those characteristics possessed by great leaders throughout history with the purpose of discovering commonality among the various characteristics. Bernard (1926), Bingham (1927), Tead (1929), and Kilbourne (1935) all attempted to identify the qualities and personality traits of great leaders (Stogdill, 1974:17). Terman (1904) conducted one of the first empirical studies dealing with psychological characteristics of leaders: others followed. Among these, Gibb (1969:55) claimed, were Webb (1915) and Govin (1915) who displayed interest in a more scientific approach to leadership. For Gibb (1969), Terman's study had more value than just being a "first." In it, Terman displayed some of the "sophisticated" understandings of the scope and complexity of leadership, only revealed after sixty-five years of experimental work in the area. Gibb (1969:36) stated:

> [Terman] observed that strength and clarity of leadership increased as 'group spirit' increased and group goals had greater clarity. "Leadership is intensified in times of emergency" (p.73). He recognized too that the criteria defined and the different criteria identify different group members as leaders. In addition, he noted significantly, with some surprise, that the same members do not necessarily appear as leaders when groupings are changed. . . . From his survey of animal studies Terman concluded that leadership must be viewed in its biological setting and suggested that the survival processes of evolution have favoured the gregarious and that this implies a tendency not to be independent and self-reliant but rather to 'follow' and to seek leadership. The necessary relation between leading and the needs of followers did not escape him.

According to Gibb, it was not these significant insights which gave the impetus to experimental study of leadership, rather it was Terman's effort to investigate distinguishing characteristics of leaders which appealed to the early psychologists. The recent possession of mental tests and other ability and personality measures encouraged psychologists to investigate traits. In Stogdill's (1974) review of leadership-trait literature some of the various methods were outlined: "The most frequently used are tests of intelligence and personalities; but questionnaires, rating scales and interviews have been utilized in some cases" (Stogdill, 1974:38).

The investigation of trait characteristics of leadership carried on until the end of the Second World War. "Prior to 1945 most of the studies of leadership were devoted primarily to the identification of such traits or qualities of leaders" (Spiess, 1975:3). There were so many studies involving leadership traits that later scholars began reviewing the literature in order to consolidate or, at least, place in some kind of order, the results, if any, obtained by these investigations. Bird (1940) compiled a list of 79 traits from approximately 20 psychological studies prior to 1940 (Bass, 1960:16). Stogdill (1948) reviewed 124 leadership studies pertaining to traits and personal factors conducted between the years 1904-1947. Earlier reviews on the subject were completed by Smith and Krueger (1933) and Jenkins (1947). Gibb (1947) conducted a similar but independent review of leader-trait literature to Stogdill, who again completed a review of these types of studies in 1970 for the period 1948-1970.

By and large, the results of these studies were somewhat disappointing. Bird found no more than five percent of leadership-traits which were common to four or more studies (Cartwright and Zander, 1968). Stogdill found only a limited number of areas of commonality between leadership traits. For example, a low positive correlation was suggested "between leadership and such variables as chronological age, height, weight, physique, appearance, dominance, and mood control" (Stogdill, 1974:63). Not much more was revealed by his later review (1974). Gibb found, in military groups at least, that leaders were "more intelligent" and appeared to be "more self-confident, sociable, aggressive, and adjustable" (Gibb, 1969:88).

Morphet, Johns and Reller (1974) have summarized the results of the investigation of leadership studies by Myer (1954) as follows:

> (a) No physical characteristics are significantly related to leadership.
>
> (b) There is no really significant relationship between superior intelligence and leadership.
>
> (c) Knowledge applicable to the problems faced by a group contributes significantly to leadership status.
>
> (d) Insights, initiative, cooperation, originality, ambition, persistence, emotional stability, judgement, popularity, and communication skills do tend to correlate with leadership (Morphet, Johns and Reller, 1975).

Mann (1959) also joined in the fray, covering the literature from 1900 to 1957. He examined 28 leadership studies dealing with intelligence, 22 with adjustment, 21 with extroversion-introversion, 12 with dominance, 9 with masculinity-femininity, 17 with conservatism, and 15 with sensitivity. While there were several significant positive relationships in his findings, "these appeared to be offset by studies in the same area that indicated either no relationship or a negative one" (Smith, 1976:10) thus making it difficult to suggest that leaders possessed common traits. Gouldner (1965), according to Chamchuk

(1969), divided lists of impressionistic traits and attempted experimental predictive studies into categories of personality, authority and "leadership qualities." Gouldner (1965) rejected trait lists as inadequate because:

(a) Neither priorities nor weightings could be established for individual traits;

(b) Traits were not mutually exclusive between the leaders and the followers;

(c) Traits did not discriminate between ascendency and maintenance of leadership;

(d) No indication was given to the genesis of the traits in the leader; and

(e) Traits did not explicate the interrelationships of individual traits within the personality of the leader. (Gouldner, 1965: 22-23).

Bavelas (1960) alluded to an inherent weakness in the studies, besides the early primitive and unreliable measurement techniques employed by researchers in the study of leadership traits, namely:

> The traits that were defined as important for leadership were often nothing more than purely verbal expressions of what the researcher felt leaders ought to be like (Bavelas, 1960:18).

Preoccupation with trait theory diminished considerably after the Second World War, and Stogdill's (1948) study of leadership traits virtually "sounded the death knell to the personality-trait orientation to leadership" (Sashkin, 1977:212). Recent disenchantment with all prevailing forms of leadership study (Hunt and Larson, 1977), however, has spawned an apparent revived interest in traits.

House (1977:189-207) developed "A 1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership" for presentation at the 1976 Symposium on Leadership held at Carbondale, Illinois. He hypothesized that leaders who have charismatic effects are differentiated from others by a possible combination of personal characteristics such as: dominance, self-confidence, need for influence, and a strong conviction in the moral righteousness of his or her beliefs (House, 1977). These characteristics are aligned with such behaviours as goal articulation, role modelling, personal image-building, demonstration of confidence and high expectations for followers, and motive arousal behaviours. Personal image-building and goal articulation are expected to enhance favourable follower perceptions of the leader, which will enhance follower trust, loyalty, and obedience and moderate the relationships between the remaining leader behaviours and follower responses to the leader. These latter responses are hypothesized to result in effective performance, provided the task demands and aroused behaviour are mutually suitable. Sashkin (1977:218) criticized House's theory in the areas of personality characteristics, situational determinants, the behaviour of charismatic leaders, and effectiveness, although he felt the theory may have had value in the "increasingly popular behaviourist approach" to leadership.

Fiedler (1979), used the occasion of his receipt of the Ralph M. Stogdill Distinguished Scholarship Award to discuss his latest thinking on leadership. Such thinking involved the utilization of experience and intelligence (traits) within a contingency framework, rather than leadership style or behaviour characteristics based on The Least Preferred Coworker scale. McCall and Lombardo (1979:10) surmised that if the leadership characteristics emphasis becomes a trend, then the recent concerns between practitioners and academicians might be better addressed: "Leader characteristics . . . might well be easier to get a handle on and work with in real world organizations than such slippery things as perceptions of leader behaviour and the like" (McCall and Lombardo, 1978:10).

Summary. Trait theories of leadership were at the forefront of the development of leadership literature in the twentieth century. Three quarters of this century have passed and interest in trait theory remains (Campbell, 1977; Fiedler, 1979; McCall and Lombardo, 1978). The decline of interest through the middle of the century is being replaced with enlivened interest spurred on by what was and what was not learned by adopting other approaches. While "leadership remains more of a performing act (Vaill, 1974) than a science" (McCall and Lombardo, 1978:163), study of the individual characteristics of the main actor is bound to continue (Patinka, 1979: 33-38).

Behavioural theories. Dissatisfaction with the results of trait theory investigations led researchers not to think about what leaders were, but how they behaved. A number of studies using different techniques were conducted concerning leadership behaviour (Hulin and Blood, 1968; Kahn, 1956; Korman, 1966; Mann, 1965) Schriesheim and Kerr (1977a) uncovered more than one hundred and twenty leadership scales. The work by the Ohio State University group and by the University of Michigan people was considered the most commonly used (Schriesheim and Kerr, (1977a:19).

The studies at Ohio State University sought to identify independent dimensions of leader behaviour. These efforts resulted in the most comprehensive and replicated approach to the study of the behavioural theories of leadership. Eventually the two dimensions of "Consideration" and "Initiation-of-Structure" were identified. Leaders who behaved high on both dimensions tended to achieve better performance and produce greater satisfaction in and among subordinates than those who were noted to be low on either dimension or both. Not always, however, did "high-high" behaviour result in positive consequences. "Initiation-of-Structure" leaders were subjected to more grievances, absenteeism, turnover, and lower satisfaction levels for routine jobs. "Considerate" leaders were not held in high esteem by their superiors. Although the Ohio studies suggested that high rating on both factors resulted in positive outcomes, there were enough exceptions to suggest that situational variables needed to be considered to explain predictable effectiveness.

The studies undertaken at the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center , contemporaneously with the Ohio State studies, measured four factors of supervisory leadership:

> Support - behaviour which increases subordinates' feeling of being worthwhile and important people . . . . Goal Emphasis - behaviour which stimulates an enthusiasm among subordinates for getting the work done . . . . Work Facilitation - behaviour which actually helps . . . subordinates get the work done by removing obstacles and roadblocks . . . . Interaction Facilitation - behaviour which builds the subordinate group into a work team (Taylor, 1971:45).

Organization people (Blake and Mouton, 1964) utilized the results of the Ohio State and Michigan studies to develop more appropriate "theories" for their own setting. The results, however, have been similar to those resulting from investigations prompted by the two universities, namely, that more than just the behaviour of the leader is required to explain and perhaps determine effective performance; situational variables need to be considered as well.

Perrow (1979:101) reinforced this point by claiming that:

> the human relations tradition has viewed managerial and supervisory behaviour as consisting primarily of leading men and not of making good decisions about such nonpersonal mundane factors as the market, technology, competition, or organization structure.

In summary, behavioural theories of leadership developed when the investigation of leader characteristics failed to produce consistent results which would aid in the development of theory. Attention was turned to what a leader does rather than what he is. The main thrust of leadership behavioural theories was shared by the Ohio State and Michigan universities, where the foci were the leader's behaviour concerning "consideration" and "initiating structure" (Ohio) and "person-orientation" and "production-orientation" (Michigan). These themes were utilized in a host of manager/supervisor training sessions throughout organizations. Some concern has been expressed that behavioural theories of leadership concentrated on the people in the group or organization to the neglect of other variables which may help to account for leadership effectiveness.

The discussion of behavioural leadership theories does not end here. The Ohio State instruments and the Michigan conceptualizations deal undoubtedly with the individual leader's behaviour, but in a context of other people or within the framework of an organization. The continuation of the discussion of the leader's behaviour, therefore, is carried on in this chapter under the category of the "group" and more specifically under the sub-categories of "group interaction theories" and "the group as an organization." The concern raised earlier regarding the categorization of theories and their proper placement in the text is most evident in the discussion of behavioural theories of leadership.

Leadership style. The term "style" is defined as "a manner of expression characteristic of an individual" (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1980:1148) and, therefore, is discussed appropriately under the "emphasis on the individual" category. The term might very well be associated with "behavioural theories" as it is also defined as the "manner or method of acting or performing" (ibid.). Throughout the literature on leadership, the term "style" is used under many categories. For the purposes of this study, "leadership style" is given its own sub-category.

According to Gouldner (1950), social psychologists had difficulty with finding commonalities among traits of leaders and failed to provide dimensions in terms of which situations could be compared. Any discussion on types or styles of leaders must be based principally upon the work of sociologists. Any success, suggested Gouldner (1950), achieved by sociologists in establishing types of leaders was attributable to distinctions made between different types of situations, especially social structures. Gouldner surmised that:

> Ultimately, perhaps, the work of sociologists may enable us to formulate propositions something like the following: given such and such a structure, with stated typical characteristics, the following leadership behaviours (A, B, C, . . .) will tend to occur (Gouldner, 1950:54).

Gouldner went on to give examples of various styles of leadership developed by sociologists. Cowley (1928), for example, distinguished between "headmen" and "leaders." Bartlett's (1926) three types of leaders were (1) the one who maintained his position through the prestige of his office, (2) the one who maintained his position through domination, and (3) the one who maintained his position through persuasion. Sanderson and Nafe (1929) suggested four styles of leadership; "static," "executive," "professional," and "group." Static leaders have prestige but are powerless. The executive has power and force at his disposal. The professionals, such as clergymen, teachers, or social workers, are not members of the group they lead. The group leader is a member of the group, a planner and a spokesman for it. Nafe (1930) suggested also a distinction between the "static" and "infusive" leaders. The infusive leader emphasized principles and ideational content, while eliciting high emotionalized types of activity from his followers as he motivated them to work for group goals. Conway (1915) suggested three types of leaders, the "crowd controller" who has oratory powers of unusual persuasiveness, the "exponent" who articulates what the crowd feels and wants, and thirdly, the "crowd representative" who is more hedged in by existent opinion than is the exponent, gives expression to established folkways and occupies some institutional office.

Gouldner noticed that Lasswell (1930) and Weber (1947) had similar styles for their leaders. The former's "administrator" and the latter's "bureaucrat" were similar to the aforementioned "headmen," "executive," and "crowd representative" of the earlier writers. Bartlett's (1926) "persuader," Nafe's (1930) "infusive" leader, and Conway's (1915) "crowd comptroller" were like Lasswell's "agitator" and Weber's "charismatic" leader. Gouldner (1950:56) also discerned in the literature other types of leaders which he termed "satellite", as they tended to play secondary roles in the literature and the public arena. Examples of these satellite leaders were described as "natural," "spontaneous," or "informal" group leaders. Gouldner (1950:56), in summarizing the various terms given to leaders noted three clusters which he labelled as agitators, bureaucrats, and informal leaders. He suggested these terms were given constant reinterpretation and varied emphasis in current discussions of leadership typologies.

Other types of leaders found in current discussions result from the classical study of leadership styles by Lippitt and White (1943) These types are "authoritarian," "democratic," and "laissez-faire." A detailed description of methodology and findings of Lippitt and White's study is to be found in Cartwright and Zander (1968).

Users of terms describing leadership styles may be guilty of adherence to trait theory or to the "central person" theory derived from Freud's original definition of a leader in which a leader is the person around whom a group crystallizes (Spiess, 1975). Most leadership styles, however, appear to carry out certain functions in a given situation or are at least products of the situation.

Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory on leadership effectiveness attempted to marry trait theory and situation theory in an interactional sense. At the outset, Fiedler suggested that his two leadership styles (task-oriented or people-oriented) were in effect fixed personality types. Cartwright and Zander (1968:314) stated the following about Fiedler's theory:

> [It] demonstrates that the effectiveness of groups is contingent upon the appropriateness of the leader's style to the specific situation in which he operates and upon the degree to which that situation enables the leader to exert influence.

Most descriptions of a particular leadership style concern the behaviours exhibited by the leader. Such descriptions pose problems for the categorization of leadership. Is leadership style separate and distinct from leadership behaviour? This "chicken or the egg" controversy was somewhat resolved by Fiedler's style categorization. For Fiedler, leadership style is based upon the psychological makeup of the individual. Fiedler subjected his leaders to a five-minute pencil and paper test known as the Least Preferred Coworker Scale (L.P.C.). A high L.P.C. score suggested that the individual was people-oriented while a low L.P.C. score indicated task-orientation. Fiedler claimed the L.P.C. score was a measure of "motivational makeup" or an indication of the "needs structure" of the individual. Garland (1975) supported Fiedler's stand by indicating that the L.P.C. scale effectively differentiated between the goal structure of individuals. Garland also examined the literature dealing with a comparison between L.P.C. and cognitive complexity. He summarized the evidence to suggest that L.P.C. was a definite measure of cognitive complexity; which is, in effect, one physiological trait or characteristic of an individual. By coupling leader leadership style as part of the psychological framework of an individual with a specific situation, Fiedler's work more properly, however, must be considered as illustrative of the premises of interaction or contingency theory.

Summary. The style of a leader is either attributable to the performance of certain functions in a given situation or is a product of the situation. Such terms as "headmen," "executive," "professional," "infusive," "crowd comptroller," "agitator," "charismatic" and examples of the different styles of leadership found in the literature were developed principally, according to Gouldner (1950), by sociologists. The classical study by Lippitt and White (1943) made household terms out of "authoritarian," "democratic" or "laissez-faire" styles of leadership. Fiedler (1967) incorporated leadership styles as important independent variables in his Contingency Theory of Leadership, thus reconciling the two prevailing approaches to leadership (trait and situation theory) and spawning current approaches to the study of leadership.

Emphasis on the Group

The sub-categories under this section include group process theories, group interaction theories and the organization as a group.

Some writers throughout the leadership literature de-emphasized the point that the total role of leadership is vested in one individual. Gibb (1969:10), for example, stated that:

> Leadership occurs in groups whose members satisfy individual needs through interactions with others. Leadership exists for a group whenever its norms and structure allow the special abilities and resourses of one member to be used in the interests of all. It is to groups rather than individuals that the concept of leadership is applicable.

Group process theories. Gibb, along with Bales (1950), Benne and Sheats (1948), Knowles and Knowles (1972), Cartwright and Zander (1968), and others could be considered to be adherents of the group process theories of leadership. Bales (1953) conducted studies dealing with the analysis of interaction between members of small groups in laboratory situations, noting that certain behaviours took place as the groups attempted to solve problems (or achieve goals). He listed twelve categories of behaviour under two headings, "instrumental" and "socio-emotional". "Instrumental" behaviours of group members were necessary functions directed toward achieving the task at hand, while "socio-emotional" behaviours appeared to have the function of maintaining or destroying cohesiveness and morale among the members. Benne and Sheats (1948) labelled these behaviours as leadership functions which enabled the group to achieve its goal. Such behaviours could be described as initiating, information seeking, information giving, opinion giving, clarifying, elaborating, coordinating, orienting, testing, and summarizing and were called "group task functions." Those behaviours which could be described as encouraging, mediating, gate-keeping (enabling others to make contributions), standing-setting, following, and relieving tension were called "group building and maintenance functions." These task functions corresponded to Bales' "instrumental" behaviours and group building and maintenance functions corresponded to Bales' "socio-emotional" behaviours, though, with some slight differences. Bales included all behaviours contributing to the social climate of the group as social-emotional. Knowles and Knowles (1972) reported that although most of these behaviours may have been regarded as group building and maintenance functions in accord with the categorization of Benne and Sheats (1948), some behaviours tended to do the opposite. Examples of these "self-centred" rather than "group-centred" behaviours were "aggression," "seeking-recognition," "special pleading (introducing or supporting ideas related to one's own pet concerns)," "blocking (interfering with the progress of the group by going off on a tangent and citing personal experiences unrelated to the group's problems)," "withdrawing" and "dominating." Knowles and Knowles cautioned their readers, however, that what may be construed by certain members of the group as self-centred behaviours may, in fact, have been attempts by the individuals concerned to be group-centred and that their behaviour was in reality either task- or group-orientated. A certain amount of patience and understanding was required by all members of a group as it progressed towards its goal.

Group interaction theories. Gibb's research (1954) and later publications (1958, 1969), clearly indicated his concern for the group and interaction theory. His review of leadership theory illuminated three important principles:

(1) leadership is always relative to the situation,

(2) leadership is always directed toward some objective goal, and

> (3) leadership is a process of mutual stimulation - a social interactional phenomenon in which the attitudes, ideas, and aspirations of the followers play as important a determining role as do the individuality and personality of the leader (Gibb, 1969:211-212).

Gibb's continuing involvement with an interaction approach to explain leadership in the context of the group is illustrated by the following comments:

> (1) Groups are mechanisms for achieving individual satisfactions and conversely, persons interact with other persons for the achievement of satisfactions.
>
> (2) Role differentiation, including the complex called leadership, is part and parcel of a group's locomotion towards its goals and thus towards the satisfaction of the needs of individual members.
>
> (3) Leadership is a concept applied to the interaction of two or more persons, when the evaluation of one or some of the parties to the interaction is such that he, or they, come to control and direct the actions of others in the pursuit of common ends.
>
> (4) Evaluation of one party to interaction by another is an integration of cognitive perception of the other and of carthexis (i.e., evaluation is a product of (a) perception of instrumentality in need satisfaction, and (b) emotional attachment).
>
> (5) This form of conceptualization leads to a recognition of a complex of emotional relationships which, in turn, defines a variety of leadership relations.
>
> (6) This view of social interaction gives rise to a number of hypotheses concerning leadership for which there is already some evidence in sociological observations and in the findings of psychological experimentation (Gibb, 1969:221).

Others, too, regarded leadership as interaction between members of groups. To Cattell (1951), leadership represented a dynamic interaction between the goals and needs of the followers and the goals of the leader, serving the function of facilitating selection and achievement of group goals.

Stogdill and Shartle (1955) studied leadership in terms of the status, interactions, perceptions, and behaviours of group members, regarding leadership as a relationship between people rather than as a characteristic of an individual.

Hollander (1958, 1964) developed a theory based on idiosyncratic credit. He theorized that the leader of a group acquired idiosyncratic credits by complying with the norms and expectations of the group. Once such credit was acquired, the leader may stray from group norms without jeopardizing his position in order to attempt innovative acts in the best interests of the group.

Bass' (1960) theory included many loosely-connected variables to explain that the leader was a valued member of the group when he could enable the group to provide expected rewards, since group effectiveness, it was postulated, was relative to the group's ability to reward its members.

The organization as a group. Considering the "organization" as a formal, structured group uncovers another batch of leadership theories which concern themselves with the human element of the organization.

Stogdill (1974) labelled certain theories pertaining to behaviour in organizations as "Humanistic Theories." Perrow (1972) and Reddin (1970) referred to this group as the "Human Relations School." Most of the theories were developed to serve the industrial and managerial fields. Increased production from existing resources could very well mean larger profits. Much impetus for the development of workable theories was provided by huge corporations and industrial giants. It was in the owners' interests to find inexpensive ways to increase production. Reorganization of management techniques seemed appropriate.

Stogdill's list included theories by Argyris (1957, 1962, 1964), Blake and Mouton (1964, 1965), Likert (1961, 1967) and McGregor (1960, 1966).

Argyris maintained that an organization would be more effective when its leadership aided followers to make creative contributions to the organization as natural outgrowths of their own needs for growth and self-expression.

Likert asserted that leaders must take into account the expectations, values, and interpersonal skills of those with whom they were interacting.

According to Perrow (1972), one of the more influential models which represented human relations theory was that of McGregor (1960). McGregor contrasted "Theory X" with "Theory Y." Theory X represented a caricature of bureaucratic theory. In this theory, it is assumed that management is supposed to believe that workers hated their work, would do anything to avoid it, and were not responsive to organizational needs. The workers can only be made to be cooperative by heavy negative actions. The assumptions underlying Theory Y, on the other hand, implied that people have the capacity for assuming responsibility, the potential for development, and the readiness to behave to meet organizational goals. Theory X explains the managerial attitude that "organizational requirements take precedence over the needs of the individual members" (McGregor, 1960:50). Theory Y (the principle of integration) demands that "both the organization's and the individual's needs be recognized" (McGregor, 1960:51). McGregor utilized Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of human needs concepts as background in his attempt to persuade managers to consider the adoption of a Theory Y stance.

Blake and Mouton's (1964) "managerial grid" consisted of two axes.

One axis indicated the degree of task orientation of the manager, and the other the degree of group or people orientation of the manager. A manager (or leader) could be rated high on both axes, low on both axes, or high on one and low on the other. A leader high on both axes developed "followers committed to accomplishment of work whose sense of interdependence through a common stake in the organizational purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect" (Stogdill, 1974: 22).

Reddin's (1970) "Three Dimensional Theory of Management Effectiveness" extended the managerial grid by dividing the area bounded by the two axes into four quadrants. The upper-right quadrant referred to high on both axes, the lower-left quadrant referred to low on both axes, and the remaining ones referred to high on one axis and low on the other. The three-dimensional aspect applied to the amount of variance a particular leader displayed on either side of the plane formed by the two axes of each quadrant. Stogdill (1974) did not include Reddin's theory in his set of humanistic leadership theories. Such an exclusion was probably due to Reddin's claim that his theory referred to management and not necessarily leadership. Due to the theory's obvious origins and the difficulty in satisfactorily distinguishing between management and leadership, the Three Dimension Theory is included along with other organization-orientated theories.

Bennis (1961) suggested a revision of leadership theory to include more recognition and partipation of the employee in the organization. His suggestions included the consideration of (1) impersonal bureaucracy and rationality of measures, (2) informal organization and interpersonal relations, (3) benevolent autocracy, employee-centred supervision and job enlargement, and (4) participative management and joint consultation which allow integration of individual and organizational goals (Stogdill, 1974:19).

According to Jacobs (1971), the group provided status and esteem gratification to its leader in exchange for goal-achievement contribution. Authority relationships in formal organizations defined role expectations that enabled group members to perform their tasks and to interact without the use of power. Leadership implied an equitable exchange relationship between leader and followers. Each party could satisfy the expectations of the other on an equitable basis, when role obligations were mutually acknowledged.

Perrow (1972) devoted the whole of Chapter 3 of his Complex Organizations: A Critical Essay, to the discussion of the human relations school and its effect on management practices in organizations. The chapter consisted of three parts: "Hawthorne and all that," "Leadership and productivity model," and "The group relations model." While explaining and discussing the various theories which pertained to the school, Perrow scathingly criticized each. In summary, he asserted that a great deal had been learned about individuals and small groups. About organizations, however, what had been learned did not usually apply in all or most cases and that the models used to explain leadership had become increasingly complex.

> The increase in complexity has resulted in a decrease in applicability and in theoretical power. We are now in a situation where the variables are so numerous and complex that we can hardly generalize to organizations or even types of organizations. Only in extreme cases of very poor leadership or very good leadership can we say much with confidence, except that most situations fall between these extremes (Perrow, 1972:119).

> The size of the list of qualifiers and conditions developed from nearly thirty years of research threatens to become overwhelming before advice can be given to managers as to what they should do to increase the morale of or productivity from their subordinates or even develop theories which have much explanatory power (Perrow, 1972:106).

Summary. Group process theories regarded leadership as that product of group members' behaviours which enables the group to progress towards its goals. Bales' (1950) work, based on small group laboratory examples, highlighted the task-oriented and group maintenance dimensions of groups. Group interaction theories emphasized the social-interaction effects of group members and resultant group goal attainment. Leadership was seen as a relationship between people, rather than as a characteristic of an individual. Consideration of the formal organization as a structured group spawned another set of leadership theories, which belong in the literature to the "human relations school." These theories were very much concerned with the human element of the organization, and considered the premise that higher satisfaction in the work setting may increase productive output for the organization.

Emphasizing the group rather than the individual acknowledges that no person can be a leader unto himself. To exercise leadership, others need to be involved, to be influenced, to be encouraged, to be persuaded, and even to be ordered. Utilizing the resources of the group to achieve goals and objectives implies group member participation; the fabric of the democratic society. Emphasis on the group, however, places emphasis on human variables. Other variables, such as technology and organization structure, influence individuals and groups, and therefore need to be considered in attempting to understand the complexities associated with goal achievement.

The next category, Emphasis on the Environment, attempts to address the role played by those other variables in relation to human variables.

Emphasis on the Environment

This category includes situation, interaction, and contingency theories on leadership. The first sub-category, shows that a large following of leadership theorists regarded the individual as less important than the situational circumstances in which the leadership was exercised. The second sub-category, interaction theories, emphasizes the interdependence between the individual and the situation. The third sub-category, contingency theories, consists of those theories which recognize that while leadership is vested to some extent in the individual, performance effectiveness is considered contingent upon various situational factors.

Situation theories. At the same time scholars were studying the prospects of "trait" theory of leadership, other scholars were actively engaged in developing "situation" theories--the other side of the story--to account for leadership. Bass (1960) suggested that "some psychologists with a strong sociological or anthropological orientation" emphasized the situation rather than the person in their studies.

Bass (1960 indicated that:

(a) Mumford (1906) showed that the amount of leadership in a society could be accounted for fairly well by describing the stage of development of the society.

(b) For Person (1928), leadership was a response to environment. The situation completely determined the qualities of leadership and the means of leadership selection.

(c) Zilig (1933) argued that the personality of the leader expressed in some way the desires of those led.

(d) Cottrell (1942) also emphasized situation, suggested that the influencer responds to a situation according to his definition of the situation (Bass, 1960:16).

Stogdill (1974:18), in discussing the "environmentalist" approach to leadership, referred to some of the above and other authors' works to explain the importance that the situation played in determining the occurrence of leadership. Some examples are as follows:

(1) The point of view of Mumford (1909) was that the abilities and skills needed to solve social problems in time of stress change and adaptations are possessed by the emergent leaders.

(2) Bogardus (1918) suggested that the nature of the group and the problems the group faced brought about the type of leadership developed or accepted by the group.

(3) Person (1928) advanced two hypotheses to account for leadership: (i) any particular situation plays a large part in determining leadership qualities and the leader for that situation, and (ii) the qualities in an individual which a particular situation may determine as leadership qualities are themselves the product of a succession of prior leadership situations which have developed and molded him.

(4) Schneider (1937) noted that the number of great military leaders in England was proportional to the number of conflicts in which England was involved.

(5) Murphy (1941) suggested that the leader was the instrumental factor through which a solution is achieved.

Cooper and McGaugh (1963:247) pointed out that a particular individual with the special qualities to meet the particular needs of a group may not be useful to the solution of other groups' needs or, in other words, he may not be a leader in another situation.

Other writers have also noted that leadership may be situation-specific. Andrews (1958), for example, stated that the leaders of children's groups engaging in misconduct were found to differ from those child leaders or groups engaged in more desirable activities, and that leaders in different kinds of extra-curricular groups showed different characteristics; editors were different from student council presidents, who in turn, were different from athletic leaders.

Jenkins (1947) stated:

> Leadership is specific to the particular situation under investigation. Who becomes a leader in a given group engaging in a particular activity and what the leadership activity and what the leadership characteristics are in a given case are a function of the specific situation (p. 27).

Speiss (1975) referred to the non-generalizability of leadership from situation to situation, and Smith (1976) argued that if leadership acts were unique to particular situation, further study of the situation theory would be pointless. Stogdill (1974) claimed that various theorists have maintained that "the situation is not in itself sufficient to account for leadership" (p. 18).

Stogdill (1974:18) went on to say that both great man theorists and situation theorists attempted to explain leadership as an effect of a single set of forces and that the interactive effects of individual and situational factors were ignored. This gave rise to the development of other and new theories of leadership, sometimes referred to as "interaction" theories.

Interaction theories. Evidence produced from research into "Trait" theory and "Situation" theory of leadership tends not to fully and completely support either set of theories Both theories appeared to be at extreme poles and seemingly in conflict. In accord with the above remarks of Stogdill, Cooper and McGaugh, Andrews, and Jenkins, there seems to be sufficient evidence to suggest that some form of a combination of the premises of trait and situation theories could be devided to describe more effectively the phenomenon of leadership. The "interaction" approach of leadership appears appropriate. In essence, interaction theory recognizes the important role the individual plays in a group's progress as well as the significance of the environment in which the group exists. As Andrews (1958) put it, the interaction approach is "one which could allow for the common sense notion that leaders do have some similar characteristics and, at the same time, allow for the unique needs of the situation" (p. 18).

Westburgh (1931) suggested that the analysis of leadership should include the affective, intellectual, and action traits of the individual as well as the specific conditions under which the leader leads. The three factors of the leader's personality traits, the nature of the group and its members, and the event confronting the group all interacted to produce leadership, according to Case (1933). In Brown's (1936) five "field dynamic laws of leadership," the interaction of (1) the leader's membership character of the group, (2) his representation of a region of high potential in a social field, (3) his ability to adapt himself to the existing field structure, (4) his ability to realize long-term trends in field structure, and (5) his acknowledgement of the fact that leadership increases in power at the cost of reduced freedom for the leader, all combined to produce the resultant leadership effects. These points of view were expanded after World War II, according to Stogdill (1974). Gerth and Mills (1952) suggested that attention be paid to (1) the traits and motives of the leader, (2) the leader's public images held by selected publics and their motives for being followers, (3) the role played by the leader, and (4) the institutional context in which the leader and his followers may be involved.

Contingency approach. Contingency theories examine the conditions under which one kind of leadership behaviour will be superior to another. Also examined are conditions which influence the leader behaviour itself (Hunt and Larson, 1974). Many of the contingency theories reported in this section deal with the individual in an organizational setting or deal with the leadership process as an independent variable in the examination of organizational effectiveness. High organizational performance according to Child (1977), is dependent upon whether the environment in which the organization is operating is variable and complex in nature, or stable and simple. Discussed earlier was the sub-category of "the organization as a group." It would not be out of place to regard the "organization as an environment" as a sub-category of this section. However, the organization is a part of a larger environment, and as such is considered as a contingency variable (Child, 1977). Therefore, those theories which involve the organization as the environment or part of the environment are included with other contingency theories of leadership.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1958) model of the autocratic-democratic shift of leadership style, although sometimes labelled as a "behaviour" theory, could easily be considered a contingency theory where in shifts in leadership styles depend upon forces in the leader himself, his operating group, and the situation. When compared with other contingency models, however, the autocratic-democratic style shift is quite primitive.

Fiedler's (1967) contingency model of leadership effectiveness is appropriate for inclusion in this section of the review, especially as there is little doubt that the expression "contingency" is derived from his theory's name (Hunt and Larson, 1974:xv). Fiedler's theory was, perhaps, the first real attempt to examine the contingence of leadership upon situational variables. As the theory has been explained earlier in this review (see p. 43) no further elaboration is required here.

However, the theory has been rather heavily criticized recently on the strength and nature of the correlations between leaders' L.P.C. scores and group or organizational performances which Fiedler used to justify the predictability of his contingency theory. Graen, Orris, and Alvares (1971) attempted to replicate Fiedler's findings in laboratory studies. They found that not only were the correlations insignificant, but two of the seven were in opposite direction to that hypothesized. Ashour (1973) reported that cumulative empirical evidence indicated that the major hypothesis of the contingency model of leadership effectiveness was not conclusively supported. Ashour, in analyzing the cumulative results utilized Fisher's method of combining correlations. The analysis indicated that the model failed the validity test in six of the eight octants. Ashour claimed that further analysis of the cumulative results indicated, contrary to Fiedler's claim, that the model and its related research had serious theoretical and methodological flaws. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) defended the model by reporting the results of validation studies (Fiedler, 1972a). They concluded "that the model is more likely to be correct than the laboratory studies" (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974:83). Further they (1974:83-85) reporting the findings of a large experiment conducted at the United

States Military Academy at West Point by Chemers and Skrzypek (1972).

> The correlation between the West Point results and the original medians {correlation medians} was 0.86, which is significant at the 0.01 level. Moreover, 37 of the correlations. . . were in the expected direction and only 11 were in the opposite direction. This is, again, a finding which is statistically highly significant. The joint probability of these findings, using Fisher's exact test, is less than 0.05 (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974:85).

Other critics of Fiedler's model have appeared more recently--Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977a, 1977b; Hosking and Schriesheim, 1971; Schriesheim, 1978.

Schriesheim and Kerr critized Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership according to Filley, House, and Kerr's (1976) criteria of theoretical adequacy. These criteria include: interval consistency, external consistency, operational properties, generality and parsimony (pp. 10-13). Schriesheim and Kerr found no contradictory propositions. There were, however, and admittedly so (Fiedler, 1967), many other dimensions which should influence leader situation favourableness other than those chosen by Fiedler. From the point of view that a sound theory should be consistent with observations, Schriesheim and Kerr claimed that the theory was "beset by several problems" (1977a:11). Firstly, as the theory was developed "post hoc," it was hard for the theory to conflict with the results obtained from studies completed. Secondly, the research to test Fiedler's theory employed different measuring instruments thus affecting the comparability of results which were used to help develop the theory. Thirdly, available research did not consistently support the theory as the data accumulated failed to meet commonly proposed standards of statistical significance. Another point of criticism lay with the use of L.P.C. which, over the years, has been subjected to continual redefinition and has failed to demonstrate construct validity adequately.

On the matter of operational properties, Fiedler's original theory has been subjected to having "variables added post hoc, construct definitions changed, and L.P.C. reinterpreted" (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977a:12), all without the benefit of having explicit a priori guidelines developed for variable evaluation, a necessary attribute for theory testing. Also, from a broader aspect, the theroy only provides a description of "how" the variables are expected to interact rather than "why." This, according to Schriesheim and Kerr (1971a), makes the theory "in its entirety" (p. 12), unoperational. The conceptual base for the theory was non-operational due to the lack of explanatory powers with any meaning. A further example of the theory's operational inadequacy lay in the non-contingent treatment of the components of situation favourableness, "more task structure, more position power, and better leader-member relations are always considered to improve favourableness of the situation for the leader" (p. 12).

Although the theory has been tested widely and in a wide variety of organizational settings, its generalizability is reduced due to the lack of criteria to guide the entry of variables into the theory as more evidence is accumulated concerning the effects of moderators on leader-subordinate interactions. Also, generalizability is affected as more account is taken of the effect of time on leader-subordinate relations and how subordinate performance affects leader perceptions of these relations (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1971a:13).

Because Fiedler explained the situation in such simplistic terms, the theory is not only parsimonious, it may be "too parsimonious." In summarizing, Schriesheim and Kerr concluded that". . . it is obvious that the theory suffers from several major shortcomings and problems which are sufficient to seriously impair its usefulness" (p. 13).

Fiedler attempted a rejoinder to Schriesheim and Kerr's "premature obituary" (1977:45), only to invoke more criticism in return (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977b). They claimed that while Fiedler was trying to "prove" his theory rather than "improve" it, they had "little basis for optimism" concerning its usefulness.

Schriesheim's (1978) dissertation reviewed the various scales utilized in the recent study of leadership. To assist him in this regard, use was made of the Standards for Educational and Psychological Tests suggested by the American Psychological Association (1974), which include: construct validity, criterion validity, content validity, scale interval consistency, scale score stability, and minimal contamination with extraneous response determinants (Schriesheim, 1978:12). Fiedler's L.P.C. instrument was critized accordingly when compared with each of the above standards. To avoid repetition, it is sufficient to state here that Schriesheim considered the L.P.C. scale to suffer from a number of severe psychometric shortcomings. As there appears to be an absence of construct validity, in spite of Fiedler and his associates spending 25 years in an attempt to find a construct meaning for the scale, there does not seem to be a likely solution to the problems of the L.P.C. in the near future (Schriesheim, 1978:29-30).

As Fiedler's theory was losing favour with researchers, an attempt to develop a contingency theory was made by House (1973) based on the Ohio State factors of "Consideration" and "Initiation of Structure." House, after work by Evans (1968), developed his Path-Goal theory (1973) of leadership effectiveness related to motivation to change the behaviour of group members through expectations of rewards and punishments. Evans suggested that the degree to which leaders exhibited consideration affected followers' perceptions of the quantity of rewards available to them. House's theory proposed that the leader's motivational functions were to increase interest in work-goal attainment as well as in the path to such attainment, and to increase the followers' interest in obtaining personal outcomes from work-goal attainment. His theory had some flaws, which were somewhat corrected in the House and Dessler (1974) modified version according to Schriesheim, 1978. The revised theory consisted of two basic propositions.

(1) the leader's function is a supplemental one, and

(2) the motivational impact of specific leader behaviours is determined by the situation (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977a:14).

Leader behaviour was seen as acceptable by subordinates when it is perceived to be an immediate or future source of reward or satisfaction, according to House (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977a). House also viewed factors in the environment, consisting of (1) the nature of the task to be performed, (2) the organization's formal authority system, and (3) the primary work groups of subordinates, to be not within the control of the subordinates. "Assessment of all of these factors makes it possible to predict the effects of specific leader behaviours upon subordinate motivation" (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977a:14). House's Path-Goal Theory, however, is not above criticism either. Using the same criteria as used to assess Fiedler's theory, Schrieshrim and Kerr (1977a) concluded that external consistency had still to be demonstrated, after the operational properties of the theory had been improved, important explicit variables included, and the nature of the expected interrelationships described precisely, before the theory could be tested fairly and its usefulness assessed. Then, and only then, could the Path-Goal theory prove to be of value in understanding leadership phenomena.

Spurred on by the rising interest in the contingency approach, the Ohio State leadership group members attempted to update their dimensions of initiating structure and consideration and conform to contingency premises. They synthesized ten specific relationships into two propositions:

> 1. The more the subordinates are dependent upon the leader for provision of valued or needed services, the higher the positive relationships will be between leader-behaviour measures and subordinate satisfaction in performance.
>
> 2. The more the leader is able to provide subordinates with valued, needed, or expected services, the higher the positive relationships will be between leader-behaviour measures and subordinate satisfaction and performance (Robbins, 1976:363).

The Ohio State group has developed LBDQ - Form 20 (1977) which contains the factors: Task Skill and Knowledge, Consideration, Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Production Emphasis, Task Facilitation, Participative Decision Making, Social Distance, Permissiveness, Influence with Superiors, Interaction Facilitation, Rule Conformity, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Surrender of the Leadership Role, Group Arousal, Representation, Follower Orientation Directiveness, Social Sensitivity, Charisma, Persuasiveness, Social Warmth, Autocratic, and Divisive Favouritism. The questionnaire is so new, that no research results testing the factors, have been reported. Some of the factors will be recognized from LBDQ - Form XII, which according to Dr. Les Berkes of Ohio State University (personal communication, 1980), is still "the most valid scale we (Ohio State) have." (LBDQ - Form XII is utilized to gather data for the empirical aspect of this study. See Chapter 4).

Hersey and Blanchard also considered updating their work and have developed a "Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model" (1977) involving a four-quadrant model similar to the Ohio State and University of Michigan models. For the two axes they use a "Relationship" dimension and a "Task" dimension. These two dimensions are similar to the "consideration" and "initiating structure" axes used by the Ohio State group. The third dimension introduced is the "environment" in which the leader is operating. The interaction of the basic style with the environment results in the degree of effectiveness or ineffectiveness. Where the Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964) and Reddin's 3-D Management Style Theory (1973) appear to be attitudinal dimensions, the Ohio State Model (Hemphill, 1949; Stogdill and Coons, 1957) and the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model are dimensions of observed behaviour (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977:107-108).

The contingency approach has spawned a renewed interest in leadership theory development since satisfaction with prevailing theories was waning. Some new approaches and variables to consider were aired at the 1972 leadership symposium held at the Southern Illinois University (Hunt and Larson, 1974). Farris (1974) introduced the concept that group performance influenced leadership; a reversal of the traditional appraoch in which leadership was considered to be a casual variable. Taylor (1974) developed a model including supervisor and sub-ordinate personality variables, environmental and organizational variables, and task variables to hypothesize that work unit effectiveness and satisfaction and leader behaviour were influenced by such variables. Olmstead (1974) introduced the concept that macro variables (top level management and total organization) should be analyzed when considering organization effectiveness rather than the usual supervisor-subordinate/ task relationships.

Wynne and Hunsaker (1975) developed a human information-processing approach to leadership. They postulated that a better understanding of the resultant behavioural outcomes from leader and subordinate efforts would ensue were the information-processing characteristics of the individual being led considered along with the conventional situation in the work organization and the work-group member's performance and satisfaction. Their "theory-only contribution . . . is novel and intriguing" (Hunt and Larson, 1975:1) in that it integrates leadership with the broader area of human information processing. The theory combined House's (1973) path-goal theory of leadership with McKenney's (1975) cognitive style model of human information processing, Weick's (1969) general systems model of social organizing, and Vroom and Jago's (1974) model of leadership decision making.

As an expansion of earlier contingency views, Osborn and Hunt (1975) presented a model utilizing "macro" variables. These variables consisted of the external environment, organizational size, technology, and organizational structure and were used in conjunction with leader behaviour and subordinate performance and satisfaction criteria to form a basis for a new model of leadership.

Vroom and Yetton (1973) constructed a normative model with five decision processes which varied in the extent to which subordinates may participate in the decision making process. According to Vroom (1974b:9), this approach "is different from other contingency models in the fact that the situational characteristics are attributes of the particular problem or decision rather than more general role characteristics."

The Carbondale Symposium of 1976 included a sense of disenchantment with leadership theory and research. However, Scott (1977) introduced a functional analysis of leadership in which leadership was treated as operant behaviour reinforced by its effects on the behaviour of others, and Sims (1979) developed a similar reinforcement model which regarded leaders in organizations as focal points around which contingencies of reinforcement were structured. Storm (1977) added the concept of "leadership style congruence" where more than one leader could influence subordinate behaviour, which contrasted with the more traditional dyadic relationships bewteen a leader and subordinate or subordinates.

In spite of these new approaches, pessimism prevailed. A plea was made by Campbell (1977) that a more simplistic approach involving defining, describing, and measuring leadership phenomena be adopted to better discuss and argue what leadership researchers were trying to explain and understand, rather than decide whether a particular theory had been supported or not supported. He asked for more concern with the "purpose" rather than the "process".

The advent of contingency theory in the study of leadership and its subsequent criticism, coupled with the criticisms of past approaches, caused proponents of leadership theory to consider reviewing the "state of the art." Osborn (1974) questioned whether it was viable to "stay with leadership-based theories of organizational states and outcomes." Korman (1974) viewed contingency theory development as not being free of concern. He proposed six points for consideration as a guide to its purposeful and meaningful development:

(1) In developing contingency variables, there needs to be theoretical and empirical concern with the mechanism by which the contingency variable is hypothesized to be having its effects (p.189).

(2) The utilization of personality constructs as contingency variables will have to be redirected. Future work will need to use constructs that relate more specifically to work behaviour. In addition, better measurement is needed (p.191).

(3) The development of contingency models of leadership has to move from a static view of the leadership process to a longitudinal view of a changing dynamic process which may call for different behaviours at different times in reference to the same people (p.193).

(4) It is becoming clear that any conceptual difference between the "contingency variable" and the independent variable is moot at best. Perhaps, in the interest of greater theoretical clarity and administrative value, the distinction should be eliminated (p.193).

(5) The need for better measurement in leadership theory is a matter of prime necessity. Measurement and theory go hand-in-hand and the development of one without the other is a waste of time for all concerned (p.194).

(6) Theory, contingency or otherwise, is to help and guide research, not to control it. We should not become so invested in any theory, particularly our own, that it "strangles" us and we ignore the major goal of our work, the understanding of behaviour (p. 195).

Obviously, some researchers have followed Korman's advice. Examples are House's 1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership (1977) discussed earlier, new approaches by Butterfield and Bartol (1977), and new ways of looking at old concepts (Greene, 1977; Scott, 1977). Schriesheim (1978) has taken the time to develop a new scale for measuring leadership incorporating better psychometric characteristics, which have been of some concern to him (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977). Although attempts are being made to improve concepts and techniques in the study of leadership, more recent concerns (McCall and Lombardo, 1978) point to an interesting future.

Summary. Situation theory, as opposed to trait theory, considers an individual leader to be inconsequential when compared to the overwhelming environmental influences prevalent at the time in shaping the course of history. The uniqueness of different situations, however, has hindered progress towards a unifying theory to cover all situations. The interaction of the leader and the situation promised more favourable results. Fiedler's (1967) pioneering attempt to relate leadership style to variable situations occupied a prominent position in the leadership literature for a considerable time. It was criticized; however, for its methodological and conceptual shortings. The "contingency" term stuck, and new contingency theories relating to the variability of leader characteristics of earlier behavioural theories coupled with variables in the organization (Hershey and Blanchard, 1977; House, 1973; Wynne and Hunsaker, 1975) were developed. As the theories grew, so did the number of variables involved. Disenchantment followed and the waning interest in contingency theories on leadership encouraged a return to something akin to trait theory (Fiedler, 1979; House, 1977).

Before concluding this chapter on leadership theory, the aspects of leadership training, experience, and skill need to be considered to complete the picture of a review of leadership literature.

Leadership Training and Experience

This section addresses the effects of training and experience on leadership. Research results pertaining to training are reported in the literature separately (Stogdill, 1974) and together with experience (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974). Training refers to formally organized preparation (tertiary level education) taken prior to being employed in the job situation. Experience refers to informal, on-the-job training gained over a period of time while being employed in a particular position (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974). Training and experience will be discussed under separate sub-headings and then together in relation to Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership because of the theory's possible explanation for the findings in leadership training and experience research.

Training. According to Fiedler (1965), the orthodox training doctrine, which has enjoyed "unquestioned pre-eminence" until relatively recent times, has held that the leader must be the "brain" of the group or organization. The leader must plan, direct, coordinate, supervise, and evaluate the work done by the members of his group. A newer approach evolved in the 1940's and was known as human-relations orientated, non-directive, or group-centred. In this new approach, the leader's main functions were to help his workers become self-directing and to develop a group atmosphere which would permit members to contribute creatively and constructively to the task. This approach has led to developments such as brain storming and sensitivity training, and has spawned much research.

Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick (1970), according to Chemers and Rice, completed a study of leadership training and reached 2 conclusions:

> (1) The research on training effects has not been adequate to test those effects due to poor design, absence of controls, and inadequate criterion measures.
>
> (2) In the few studies which were adequate to test for training effects, the results were mixed and do not inspire great confidence in the efficacy of leadership training (Chemers and Rice, 1974:108).

Stogdill (1974:177-199) completed a thorough review of leadership training literature, covering such areas of interest as:

(1) training methods, (2) research with school children, (3) training techniques, (4) psychodrama and role playing, (5) sensitivity training, (6) effects of training on group performance, (7) factors affecting training outcomes, (8) a new direction in training, (9) surveys of trainees and training programmes, and (10) reviews, textbooks, and bibliographies. These areas of interest and the results of research and other findings pertaining to each area are outlined in Table 2.

The various methods used for leadership training have been lectures, group discussions, role playing, psycho- and socio-drama, simulation games, problem-solving projects, sensitivity training and encounter groups. According to Perrow (1979) a whole industry has evolved around the assumption that leaders can be trained. This industry involves academic social scientists, business schools, and independent corporations. The most famous and financially-rewarding training programmes concentrate on sensitivity training and are known as T-groups. Much of the leadership training literature relates to sensitivity training.

Some research has been conducted with school children. The children benefitted from direct training and practice in leadership, learned the positive effects of self-government, and appeared to learn more through discussions, although they did not necessarily prefer unstructured learning situations.

University students benefitted from direct training in leadership techniques also. It was found that when established leaders were removed from the group, others were able to emerge because of their training. In the area of psychodrama and role playing, it was found

Table 2

Results and Findings Contained in Leadership Training Literature According to Stogdill (1974)

Area of Interest	Results and Findings
1. Training Methods	1. Lecture with textbooks and teaching aids used in armed services and industry. 2. Group discussion in industry and education. 3. Role playing, psychodrama, sociodrama, business games, in-basket problems, problem-solving projects, sensitivity training, and encounter groups.
2. Research with School Children	1. Direct training and practice in leadership improved students' leadership capacity. 2. Students gained in dominance and sociability under the participation and discussion method rather than under laissez-faire and lecture methods. 3. Experience in democratic self-government reduced the popularity of dominant bullies. 4. Students learned more through discussion than lecture, but do not necessarily prefer a totally unstructured learning situation.
3. Training Techniques	1. Direct training in leadership techniques tends to improve leadership ability especially for "above average" students. 2. New leaders emerge when encumbent leaders are removed.
4. Psychodrama and Role Playing	1. Experience in problem-solving groups is more effective for improving social adjustment and leadership than role playing.

Table 2

(Continued)

Area of Interest	Results and Findings
5. Sensitivity Training	1. For follower-centred behaviour, sensitivity training tends to change. 2. Sensitivity training (T-groups) results in more favourable attitudinal changes to subordinates, a stronger human relations orientation, and greater awareness of interpersonal dynamics. 3. When the LBDQ was used to measure the effects of sensitivity training, negative results were reported. Stogdill claims ". . . it may well be that sensitivity training is not appropriately designed to change anything that may legitimately be called leader behaviour" (1974:89).
6. Effects of Training on Group Performance	1. Sensitivity training of leaders is associated with increased cohesiveness of the group and decreased group productivity.
7. Factors Affecting Training Outcomes	1. Training is more effective when students are highly motivated and participate actively in the training programme. 2. Leaders tend to learn more under conditions of high motivation and effort. 3. The organization climate to which a leader returns after training tends to condition his behaviour. 4. There are few significant differences between lectures and group discussions as leadership training methods.
8. A New Direction in Training	1. The discussion of films affects student adjustment to supervision. Insight and understanding, however, facilitate favourable response to supervision rather than attitude reinforcement.

Table 2

(Continued)

Area of Interest	Results and Findings
9. Surveys of Trainees and Training Programmes	1. Trainees had improved human relations skills but preferred instruction in specific job preparation, and structured classwork and lectures rather than group discussions and informal contacts with faculty and students.
10. Reviews, Textbooks, and Bibliographies	1. Twenty reviews on leadership research published during 1963-1970. 2. Eleven textbooks written on training for management development between 1950 and 1967. 3. Seven bibliographies on various aspects of leadership training compiled during 1954-1967. 4. Sensitivity training was both supported and criticized.

that role playing increases role playing ability and social adjustment. Experience in problem-solving groups was more effective in improving social adjustment and leadership than was role playing.

Sensitivity training attempts to bring about change in leader attitude and leader behaviour in the areas of: (1) sensitivity to follower needs and desires, (2) openness and sharing of information, (3) sharing of decision making with followers, (4) intimate, friendly, and egalitarian interaction with followers, and (5) structuring, personal dominance, and productive output (Stogdill, 1974:182). Sensitivity training tends to change attitudes about follower-centred behaviour, but there is little evidence to suggest changes in overt behaviour. Other results indicate more favourable attitudinal changes to subordinates, stronger human relations orientation, and greater awareness of interpersonal dynamics. The LBDQ (Leaders Behaviour Description Questionnaire) did not appear to show positive results as a measure of the effects of sensitivity training. Stogdill countered by suggesting that: ". . . sensitivity training is not appropriately designed to change . . . leadership behaviour" (Stogdill, 1974:89).

The effects of training on group performance are associated with increased group cohesiveness and decreased group productivity.

The factors which affect training outcomes are trainee motivation, participation, and the organization climate to which the trainee returns. It does not seem to matter whether the training is given by lecture or by group discussion. Stogdill pointed out, however, that "few studies have been designed to measure the effects of training" (Stogdill, 1974:189). The more motivated and actively involved the trainee is, the more effective is the training. The organization climate to which the trainee returns tends to condition his behaviour after training. Haire (1948) and Fleishman (1953), among others, have suggested that the entire management of the organization should be subjected to the same training programme as the trainee leader, which may help to make the organizational climate more receptive to change.

Stogdill (1969) and Stogdill and Bailey (1969) attempted to aid followers in their adaptation to leaders. Using special motion pictures to show different patterns of leadership behaviour, and having students discuss their content, resulted in affecting student adjustment to supervision. It was found also that insight and understanding facilitate favourable response to supervision rather than attitude reinforcement.

Several large-scale surveys were conducted to determine the attitudes of trainees or company executives toward the benefit of training over a period of sixteen years (1950-1966). The results indicated that trainees had acquired improved human relations skills but preferred instruction in more specific job preparation. They also preferred more structured classwork and lectures to group discussion and informal contacts with faculty and fellow students.

Twenty reviews of leadership research, eleven textbooks, and seven bibliographies were published in the period 1950-1970 on the topic of leadership training. Much attention was paid to sensitivity training. Not all sources were favourably disposed toward this kind of leadership training. Odiorne (1963), for example, did not find a single study to show that laboratory training changes behaviour back on the job. Weaknesses were found in both theory and method of training. Laboratory training did not prepare leaders for coping with the hard realities of the working world and this sort of training created stress and interpersonal animosity. Nothing was done to relieve or correct such tensions and emotional upsets (Stogdill, 1974:197). Stogdill concluded that:

> . . . the research on leadership training is generally inadequate in both design and execution. It has failed to address itself to the most crucial problems of leadership--consequences of training for acquisition and retention of the role, maintenance of leadership under concerted challenge of legitimacy of the role, and effects of leadership on group performance and member satisfaction. Training that ignores these issues can hardly be called training in leadership (Stogdill, 1974:199).

Similar results and findings are reported by Fiedler and Chemers (1974) who elaborated on the point that, from their investigations (Fiedler, 1966; Fiedler and Chemers, 1968), there was little difference between the resultant performances on the job by trained and untrained leaders.

Perrow (1970) agreed that sensitivity training may provide the individual with high personal returns, but may not necessarily provide increases in productivity for the organization. Gibb (1974) reported that T-group (sensitivity training) and encounter-group training are:

> . . . ineffective unless they are integrated into long-range efforts that include such elements as a total organizational focus, system-wide data collection, provision for feedback and information flow, organization-focussed consultation over an extended time and data-supported theory (Gibb, 1974:160).

Experience. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) assumed that a person will learn from having been in a managerial or leadership position for several years. A manager can expect to get informal training from his fellow supervisors and his supervisors in the form of advice and guidance. After examining the data of several studies, however, Fiedler (1970) noticed that the correlation between years of leadership experience and rated or scored leadership performance was low and in the negative direction (-0.12). Fiedler and Chemers (1974) claim that a number of other studies, not included in Fiedler's (1970) analysis but including ones by Fiedler and Chemers (1968) and McNamara (1968), gave similar results. These data were not considered to be out of the ordinary as "younger leaders often perform better than older, more experienced ones" (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974:127). Csoka (1972) found that effects of experience are identical to those of training, in that experience changes the "situation favourableness" for leaders, but only for intelligent leaders who are able to learn from experience.

Training and experience. The results of the effects of leadership and the effects of experience on leadership are "seemingly incomprehensible" (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974:127). Fiedler and Chemers (1974) claimed that the Contingency Model of Leadership provides a meaningful framework for understanding these results. Training for the leader in effect helps him to know how to troubleshoot, how to keep records, how to order supplies, and to whom he can turn to for advice. This new knowledge and skill will tend to make the job more structured and the situation more favourable. Experience will tend to also make the situation more favourable for the leader. The Contingency Model shows that task-motivated people perform best when the situation is either very favourable or very unfavourable. Relationship motivated people perform best when the situation is only moderately favourable. The prediction by the model, then, is that more training and experience can influence the favourableness of the situation for the leader, and under certain circumstances, cause him to become less effective. For the high LPC person (relations-motivated) with no experience or training, the situation is relatively unfavourable. As soon as he gets training or acquires experience, then the favourableness of the situation increases. Thus the high LPC person is now in a favourable situation and, according to the model, his performance will be poor. The same results can occur for the low LPC person who is initially in an unfavourable position, where he is predicted to perform effectively. More training and experience will give him more control over the situation, making it moderately favourable. Under these circumstances, the low LPC person will perform ineffectively. The more experience and training the low LPC person gets, the more favourable the situation becomes, and eventually the more effective will be his performance. In summary, "the effect which leadership experience and training have on performance will depend upon the type of situation within which the leader has to operate" (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974:130). Fiedler and Chemers (1974) claimed that the reconceptualized psychological meaning of training and leadership experience (Fiedler, 1972b) as a way of giving the leader a more favourable leadership situation is supported by a wide variety of studies which show why previous studies on leadership training and experience have failed to find improvement. They claim, also, that the Contingency Model will provide accurate guidelines for predicting whether leadership training and experience will be beneficial or detrimental to the performance of the organization.

Kerr and Harlan (1973) examined Fiedler's (1972b) training hypothesis and offered criticism of the work. They argued that if a situation were favourable, it should not matter how it became so. Also, they were concerned that training might affect the leader's motivational patterns and indirectly his LPC score, which may require new predictions for his leadership effectiveness. Chemers and Rice (1974) attempted to counter the remarks of Kerr and Harlan (1973), only to receive a rebuttal from Kerr (1974). He claimed that due to the nature of organizations, there are times when a leader's hands are "tied," and real influence is exerted by bureaucratic procedures on required methodologies. Such factors may be "substitutes for leadership," and could possibly account for the apparent leader's potential impact upon the attitudes and performance of his work group. In many cases, leaders in organizations are "professionals" (scientists and engineers) who adhere to professional standards and methodology, and their behaviour may well be influenced from outside the organization. Referring to Farris (1969), Kerr suggested that it was critical to know not only whether leadership was present at all in a given situation, but where was it, and in what ways.

In response to Chemers and Rice specifically, Kerr again referred to Kerr and Harlan's (1973) comments regarding the effect on situational favourableness by leadership training and experience. Once the favourableness of the situation score is known, there is no need to be concerned about the experience or training of the leader. According to the Contingency Model, low LPC persons are supposed to perform best in very favourable situations and high LPC persons are supposed to perform best in situations of moderate favourableness. Since the amount of training or experience does not alter the prediction, "it is a useless appendage to their hypothesis" (Kerr, 1974:126).

Summary. Reviews of the literature pertaining to leadership training and experience do not find that the performance of leaders is improved by training and experience. Improved attitudes and a better understanding of human relations emanated from sensitivity training but leaders preferred more structured classwork in their training sessions. Fiedler (1972b), Fiedler and Chemers (1974), and Chemers and Rice (1974), attempted to show that leadership training and experience altered the favourableness of the situation and could account for the incomprehensible results in the literature. Kerr and Harlan (1973) and Kerr (1974) criticized the reconceptualization of the effect of training and experience on situational favourableness. Kerr (1974) offered the explanation of substitutes for leadership to account for the apparent lack of performance success of leaders.

Leadership Skills

Leadership skills are thought of as those skills required by the leader in a group or organization which contribute to his effectiveness in getting the job done. These skills may be acquired from natural talent (traits), training, and experience, and may be beneficial to the leader as an individual, to the group, or to the organization.

From Stogdill's (1948, 1974) reviews of the leadership literature respecting traits, he concluded that among many physical attributes, leaders tended to be more fluent in speech than their subordinates. Of all attributes, fluency in speech, if not tone of voice, is a factor to be considered in leadership. "Thus it does not seem surprising that some of the most searching studies of leadership should reveal the capacity for ready communications as one of the skills associated with leadership status" (Stogdill, 1974:43).

Other attributes of the leader, relating to leadership skill in the group or organizational setting, found by Stogdill (1974) in his review of leadership trait literature for the period 1948-1970, which supported the findings of the earlier review (1904-1947), were: (1) Achievement drive, desire to excel; (2) drive for responsibility; (3) enterprise, initiative; (4) task orientation; (5) administrative ability; and (6) sociability, interpersonal skills (Stogdill, 1974:75).

Mann (1965) developed a "skill-mix theory" of leadership in which satisfaction with supervision was primarily a function of a manager's administrative skill at top levels in the organization and a function of technical and human-relations skills at lower levels. His theory holds that a different mix of supervisory skills is appropriate at the different hierarchical levels of an organization. Technical skills are more important at lower levels, administrative and institutional skills are more important at upper levels, and human-relations skills are important at all management levels. To test such an approach, Farris and Butterfield (1973) conducted a study with bank personnel in Brazil. They found that the top managers were seen as highest in all skills. Technical skills were the strongest, followed by human-relations skills, and then institutional and administrative skills. According to Farris and Butterfield (1973), some of the well-known North American-based leadership theories argue that best results are obtained when skilled leaders behave in certain ways (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Bowers and Seashore, 1966; Likert, 1961, 1967). The North American theories argue that in virtually all leadership situations, the more successful leaders are higher in technical skills and human-relations skills the more they treat their subordinates as a group rather than man-to-man, they have higher standards of performance, and they provide general rather than close supervision. Their supervision is supportive rather than punitive. In the Brazil situation, however, bank supervisors, who were perceived to be successful by their subordinates were perceived as highly skilled, less punitive, having high standards of performance, supervising closely, and using a mix of man-to-man and group methods of supervision. The differences predicted by skill-mix theory may be present in Brazil in a subtle fashion, but their effects are overcome by a strong tendency to rate higher-level supervisors as more skilled in all areas of organizational leadership (Farris and Butterfield, 1973:134).

Farris (1974) broke from current leadership study approaches by considering the notion of leadership as influence. Using supervisor competency as a contingency variable, Farris studied NASA scientist groups to assess the results of innovation and critical evaluation. In general, he found a positive relationship between innovation and task functions, a curvilinear relationship between innovation and human-relations functions, with the highest innovation occurring under supervisors moderate in human-relations functions, and a negative relationship between innovation and administrative functions. Two measures of leadership style (provision of freedom) and use of consultation) were found to be only moderately associated with innovation. When investigating relationships involving combinations of supervisory practices, some interesting results emerged. With regard to freedom, he found that for supervisors low in task, human-relations, and administrative functions, provision of freedom showed positive relationships with innovation. Provision of freedom mattered less, and sometimes related negatively, for supervisors rated high in these competencies. "For supervisors high in technical skills, provision of freedom correlated 0.0 with innovation; for supervisors low in technical skills, provision of freedom correlated 0.6 with innovation" (Farris, 1974:74). For supervisors high in technical skills, the correlation between critical evaluation and innovation was 0.5; for supervisors low in technical skills, it was -0.5. No evidence was found to support the Blake and Mouton (1964), Kahn (1956), and Oaklander and Fleishman (1964) notions that innovation was higher when supervisors were high in both task and human-relations functions. Human relations skills had little moderating effect on the positive relationships between innovation and task functions and vice versa. When the supervisor consulted with his subordinates prior to decision making, innovation and provision of freedom for subordinates were positively related (0.7). Where little consultation took place, provision of freedom was uncorrelated with innovation (-0.1). These latter findings, claims Farris, were consistent with the total influence hypothesis.

Summary. Leadership skills may be acquired through talents or learned. Stogdill's reviews (1948, 1974) of the trait theory literature point out that leaders have attributes in the form of skills which will aid them in the group and in the organization. United States based leadership theory argues that skilled leaders exercise these competencies pointed out by Stogdill (1974). Farris and Butterfield (1973) found that successful supervisors in Brazil were perceived by their subordinates to have high technical, human-relations, institutional, and administrative skills. Mann's (1965) "skill-mix" theory suggests that higher level managers have administrative and institutional skills, lower level supervisors have technical skills, and human-relations skills are required by all levels. Farris (1974) employed supervisor competence as a contingency variable in his study of the effectiveness of scientist groups and found that the degree of technical skill of the supervisor served as an important moderator of relationships between innovation and critical evaluation. Human-relations skills had little moderating effect on the generally positive relationships between task function and innovation and vice versa. In defence of his interest in the primitive notion of leadership as influence, Farris suggested that progress in the understanding of leadership will best be advanced by following current paradigms as well as following departures from them.

Future Prospects of the Study of Leadership

Undoubtedly, much is happening in leadership study. Hunt and Larson (1979) referred to "the interest in measuring what it is that leaders do" (p. 255), "emphasis on laboratory investigations and causal investigations of leadership" (p. 256), the trend towards attribution, the focus on power and other forms of leadership-related variables, and "followups and extensions" (p. 256) of well-known paradigms. One aspect of study which does not appear to be receiving attention, however, is the use of macro variables, a predominant theme in the recent literature. New theories (House, 1977; Fiedler, 1979; Agyris, 1979) help to convey the appearance of a healthy atmosphere surrounding the study of leadership.

All is not that well, however. Dubin (1979) was amazed with an apparent confusion between the terms leadership and management or supervision. Moses noted that "no more than 25 percent of all incumbents [managers] possess significant leadership skills" (1979:28). He concluded also, that not all people in leadership positions were effective leaders, and proposed his "commandment": "Thou shalt study leaders who are first accurately identified as leaders before attempting to build theories of leadership behaviour" (1979:28). Pondy (1978:92) recognized the semantic problems associated with the study of leadership. He indicated difficulty with such terms as "leadership style," and "effective leader." These semantic concerns are not new. Scott (1977) noted that: "Dr. Stogdill's extraordinary compendium clearly demonstrates a diversity of opinion regarding the term leadership. This diversity undoubtedly contributes to the problems facing current students of leadership" (p. 84).

Campbell (1977) noted that the term leadership had been used to comply with each researcher's concept of what leadership was, thus permitting the pursuit of a course of investigation peculiar to the interests of the individual. Gibb stated:

> [The] concept of domination and headship is important because it is so different from that of leadership and because so much so-called leadership in industry, education, and in other social spheres is not leadership at all, but is simply domination (1969:213).

From the above statements, it is apparent that there is considerable concern with the term leadership itself. Campbell (1977), however, while realizing that some idea of leadership must exist before scholars can decide how much they know about it, suggested that having a precise definition was subjective in nature and not necessarily an "empirical question" (p. 223). He further suggested there were many ways to examine the phenomenon when researchers decided upon a useful convention.

Other problems facing the study of leadership which bear consideration centre on the difference between leadership in small face-to-face situations compared to leadership in large formal organizations (Dubin, 1979). Leadership reverts to a place of relatively little importance in considering its value to overall organization effectiveness (Hunt and Larson, 1979). To confound these problems further, current organization theory is questioning effectiveness itself (Goodman, Pennings and Associates, 1979).

Summary

This chapter consisted of a review of the literature pertaining to leadership, except for that part which relates to the recreation field and which is reported in Chapter 3. It was found that there are as many ways to define the terms "leader" and "leadership" as there are people willing to define them (Stogdill, 1974). Definitions of leadership include attempts to:

1. Identify the object to be observed,
2. Identify a form of practice,
3. Satisfy a particular value orientation,
4. Avoid a particular value orientation or implication for practice, and
5. Provide a basis for theory development (Stogdill, 1974:16).

It was found also that while man has been interested in the topic of leadership for ages, serious study of the phenomenon only commenced at the turn of the twentieth century when the efforts by social scientists to develop theories of leadership began.

The review of leadership theories shows that leadership has been examined by examining the characteristics of individuals, by examining the characteristics of the human group, and by examining the characteristics of the environment in which the leader acted.

In reviewing "emphasis on the individual" theories it was found that, stemming from arguments by well-known philosophers about how the world of man had progressed, psychologists became interested in the characteristics of leaders. Trait theories were developed, and the interest prevails today, after the initial thrust was lost decades ago. As dissatisfaction was associated with what leaders were, attention was diverted to how they behaved. From the 1940's to the early 1970's, interest in the behaviour of leaders sparked a host of research projects, encouraged the development of measuring instruments, and found its way into influencing formal organizations and gigantic corporations. Trait theory and behavioural theory spawned an interest in the manner in which leaders behaved and leadership "style" received considerable attention. Lippitt and White (1943) have left us with the legacy of regarding leaders as being "authoritarian," "democratic" or "laissez-faire."

Under the "group" category emphasis was placed on leadership as a process of the interaction of group members in the attainment of goals. The "human relations school" regarded the organization as a group of individuals and placed emphasis on the human side of enterprise. Such terms as "consideration," "initiation of structure," "task-orientation" and "people-orientation" were derived from an interest in the behaviour of leaders in a group and were associated with the renowned efforts of the Ohio State and Michigan Universities.

Under the "environment" category, it was found that the "situation" was analyzed contemporaneously with "trait theory." Situationists regarded the forces in the environment to be more influential in changing the course of events than were individuals. As the specificity of situations interfered with sound theory development, the interaction of the individual with the situation seemed to make more sense. The likes of Fred E. Fiedler came into prominence as he pioneered the "contingency" theory of leadership. Criticisms of prevailing theories concerning behaviour and individual traits and methodologies gave rise to the set of contingency theories which held sway in the 1970's up to the present date. The hosts of variables required to adequately explain leadership-effectiveness, including those which affected organization performance, and the increasing frustrations associated with attempts to gain meaningful and defensible results, however, have led to recent questioning of the whole phenomenon of leadership.

On the matters of leadership training and experience, and in spite of Fiedler and Chemers' (1974) attempt to explain the incomprehensible results of research, it was found that while sensitivity training, in particular, may help leaders to appreciate their coworkers and subordinates better, expectations for improved worker performance were not fulfilled. The notion of "influential increment over and above mechanical compliance" (Katz and Kahn, 1978:528) when associated with leadership skills (Mann, 1965) suggests a different leadership paradigm which may lead to more fruitful assessments of leadership effectiveness in the organizational setting (Farris, 1974; Farris and Butterfield, 1973).

Although the consideration of new theories (Argyris, 1979; Fiedler, 1979; House, 1977), the "followups" to and extensions of well-known paradigms, and the increasing interest in measuring what leaders do suggest much is happening in leadership, basic problems associated with terminology, "who is really a leader?" and variable complexity provide cause for concern. Not only is the term leadership undergoing difficulties, the whole notion of effectiveness, especially for organizations, is tenuous.

Chapter 3

REVIEW OF RECREATION LEADERSHIP LITERATURE

Chapter 2 was concerned with a review of the literature pertaining to leadership with the exception of that part of the literature referred to in this study as "recreation leadership literature." This chapter reports the results of the review of recreation leadership literature.

Using the term "recreation leadership" as a guide, this review was carried out by examining primary and secondary references in recreation and leisure journals, research journals, theses abstracts, publication indexes, textbooks on the organization of recreation and/or leisure services, texts on recreation leadership specifically and other related publications. This review attempts to report information pertaining to recreation leadership in the manner(s) used in Chapter 2. Firstly, recreation leadership definitions found are reported similarly to the way definitions of leadership were reported in Chapter 2 by utilizing Stogdill's (1974) system of categorization. Secondly, recreation leadership is reported as (1) emphasis on the individual, (2) emphasis on the group, and (3) emphasis on the environment, as was done in Chapter 2 (see Figure 1). Thirdly, any notions or aspects of recreation leadership which are reported in the literature and which are similar to or different from that found in the body of literature reviewed for Chapter 2 will be discussed. Fourthly, aspects of the non-recreation leadership literature which appear to be omitted from the recreation leadership literature will be discussed. Although reference is made to the importance of leadership in the recreation field in 1907 (Rivers, 1956), this review spans a period of forty-eight years, from 1933 to 1981.

Definitions of Recreation Leadership

According to Carlson, Deppe, and McLean:

> Perusal of the literature of recreation and of other professions will uncover many and varied definitions of leadership . . . the description of a leader remains essentially the same whether he be a leader of recreation or any other phase of humanitarian endeavor (Carlson, Deppe, and McLean, 1963:345).

They also warn that "the nature and scope of recreation leadership have such breadth that categorization becomes difficult" (Carlson, Deppe, and McLean, 1963:352).

The categorization of definitions in this chapter was devised by Stogdill (1974:7-15) (see Table 1, Chapter 2) and is utilized here to provide some attempt at overcoming the above-mentioned difficulty. Stogdill employed as categories for definitions of leadership: (1) leadership as a focus of group processes, (2) leadership as personality and its effects, (3) leadership as the art of inducing compliance, (4) leadership as the exercise of influence, (5) leadership as act or behaviour, (6) leadership as a form of persuasion, (7) leadership as a power relation, (8) leadership as an instrument of goal achievement, (9) leadership as an effect of interaction, (10) leadership as a differentiated role, and (11) leadership as the initiation of structure. Table 3 is the result of the attempt and it will be noted that at least one definition was found to suit each category except for the last two: "leadership as a differentiated role," and "leadership as the initiation of structure." Undoubtedly, several of the recreation leadership defin-

Table 3

Some Definitions and Conceptions of Recreation Leadership Found in Recreation Leadership Literature Ordered Chronologically and According to Stogdill's (1974:7-15) Categorization

Category	Definition	Author(s)	Date
Leadership as a focus of group processes	Such is the spiritual discovery of the hardest boiled research of our decade which says that leadership is a group process by which people who feel free and are responsible pursue goals to which they dedicate their hearts and commit their energies. The leader gives information and help and enthusiasm.	N.R.A. Staff	1956
	When you're first and others follow, that's called leadership.	Weiskopf	1975
Leadership as personality and its effects	The leader must be an individual of well-rounded personality and upright character, with power to influence character and personality in both children and adults.	Lee (cited in Butler)	(1967)
	A leader is a person with a magnet in his heart and a compass in his head.	Stone	1952
	Any definition of leadership inevitably breaks down into a survey of qualities found to be essential or desirable in the individuals who are to assume leadership roles.	McLean	1962

Table 3

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author(s)	Date
	Leadership, in the most valid sense, is not a matter of techniques as much as it is of applied intelligence, good judgement, and the ability to empathise with others.	Hjelte and Shivers	1978
	{Leadership is} a quality, or a combination of qualities, which gives an individual the ability to work effectively with groups in a process of group planning, decision making, or program service.	Kraus (cited in Edginton, Compton, and Hanson)	1966 (1980)
Leadership as the art of inducing compliance	Within this text, recreation leadership is defined as: the process of working effectively with groups of participants or co-workers, in order to encourage, mobilize, and direct their fullest efforts in carrying on successful recreation programs.	Kraus and Bates	1975
Leadership as the exercise of influence	When an individual can influence others in a direction which he wants them to take, he is a leader.	Shivers	1963
	Leadership is based upon influence.	Shivers	1963
	A leader is a catalyst who provides opportunity for everybody to be at his best.	Douglass	1958a
	Leadership is the ability to influence other people in the achievement of common aims and goals.	Shivers	1961

Table 3

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author(s)	Date
	A leader in this {recreation and leisure} field can be defined as one who exerts influence on people's use of leisure time by persuading them and providing opportunities for them.	Jensen	1977
Leadership as act or behaviour	Recreation leadership is really another form of educational opportunity for every person of whatever age, to so act that he may improve himself, and in the process make desirable social contacts and contribute something to the happiness and welfare of others.	J.O.H.P.E.R.	1960
Leadership as a form of persuasion	True leadership is the creative kind of leadership that brings out the power of people to do their own thinking and make their own decisions.	Whitlock (cited by N.R.A. Staff)	1963
	True leadership is found in attaining accomplishment of common purposes by participation and persuasion rather than by command.	Smiddy (cited by Douglass)	1956
Leadership as a power relation	Leadership derives inevitably from the power concept. In effect, power and leadership are one.	Shivers	1963
	It is personal power that is sought in leadership. "Personal power"--which is what the word "charisma" seems to be all about. That magnetic, dynamic, mystical power that a person can project to get others to do something.	Tillman	1973

Table 3

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author(s)	Date
	Power must be viewed as a function of the person and as a function of the social system.	Sessons and Stevenson	1981
Leadership as an instrument of goal achievement	Inspired leadership facilitates the contagious communication of competent enthusiasm in situations of heartfelt concern, mutual enjoyment, and personal growth. By discovering, releasing, developing, and putting to work the varied competencies of people, inspired leadership operates to define and achieve group goals through the involvement and participation of people.	Douglass	1956
	Leadership is the inspiration, the energy, and the motivating force that transforms a group into a conscious and purposeful action body. In other words, leadership is the motivating force that triggers action towards the achievement of organizational goals.	Rodney and Ford	1971
	{Leadership is} a process of stimulating and aiding groups to determine or accept common goals and carry out effectively the measures leading to the attainment of these goals.	Danford	1964

Table 3

(Continued)

Category	Definition	Author(s)	Date
Leadership as an effect of interaction	This book emphasises, therefore, the recreation leader not as a director, though there will be many times when he will direct; not as a coach, though he may coach; not as a guide, though there may be times when he will point out the way; but as a sharer. He is one who has something to share with others. Being a sharer he assumes not the teacher-pupil, or leader-follower, or counselor-counselee attitude, but the attitude of a comrade and friend.	Harbin	1940
Leadership as a differentiated role			
Leadership as the initiation of structure			

itions in Table 3 could be situated in more than one category.

Six definitions in different categories (Danford, 1980; Douglass (1956a, 1956b); N.R.A. Staff, 1956; Rodney and Ford, 1971; Shivers, 1961, Smiddy, 1956) all refer to the setting and accomplishment of group goals. Two definitions by Douglass refer to the leader as a "catalyst" and could be grouped in either the "instrument" or "influence" categories. Harbin's (1940) "definition" attempts to include all possibilities, making the process of its categorization "difficult." Weiskopf's (1975) definition may be categorized as "role differentiation" where the leader's role is contrasted simply with that of the follower. The definitions by Douglass (1956a, 1956b) and by Kraus (1966) may well be categorized as "initiation of structure" in compliance with Katz and Kahn's footnote (1978:536) in which they regard the Ohio State leadership studies' (Fleishman, Harris, and Burtt, 1955) concept of "initiation of structures" as task-orientated supervisory behaviour. "Role differentiation" and "initiation of structure," it will be recalled, emanated from Stogdill's (1959) own theorizing and may be terms more applicable to a "hard" scientific approach with terminology rather than the "soft" recreation approach (Stone, 1953).

Categories of Leadership Theories

The review of non-recreation leadership literature (Chapter 2) showed that leadership was described in the literature by definition and according to theory. Many definitions of recreation leadership were found in the review of recreation leadership literature and are reported above in the previous section of this chapter. Theories of recreation leadership, however, were not found. Any references to leadership theories in the recreation leadership literature refer to those theories found in the non-recreation literature on leadership, and only few writers of recreation leadership literature make such reference. Tillman (1973:42) includes trait theory and power relationships, Sessoms and Stevenson (1981:22-37) include "Great Man" theories, psychological and sociological theories, trait theories, personal-situational theories, and those theories which have been applied to the human-relations theories of organizations (Theory "X" and Theory "Y," the Managerial Grid). Shivers (1963) dealt with various forms of power (pp. 54-62) and leadership and the group process (pp. 143-176). Later, Shivers (1980), and Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates (1981) referred to trait theory, situational theory, functional theory (group process) and contingency theory. Although no leadership theories were found which were developed expressly for the recreation field, sufficient commentary concerning most of the categories used in Figure 2 exists and will be reported under similar categories and sub-categories to those used in Chapter 2.

Emphasis on the Individual

Under this category, which includes leadership traits, leadership behaviour, and leadership style as sub-categories, will be discussed those aspects of recreation leadership which concentrate on the recreation leader as an individual entity. Of all categories under the heading of leadership theories, this one has received the most attention from writers of recreation leadership literature.

Leadership traits. Most of the literature on recreation leadership, and especially the early publications, is concerned with the "ususally desirable" characteristics of a recreation leader. Table

4 presents those characteristics, traits, and behaviours of recreation leaders gleaned from the literature on recreation leadership. The characteristics are listed alphabetically, and according to author or authors, and the year published. Some characteristics such as "alert," "alertness," "capability," "cooperation," "inquisitive," "physically fit," and "willingness to be helpful" are only mentioned once. Others, however, as will be seen in the table, are more popular. Some examples are: "ability," "common sense," "enthusiasm," "good judgement," "initiative," "integrity," "knowledge of skills," and "sense of humor." All in all, 106 different characteristics of recreation leadership were identified by 22 authors in the period 1938 to 1980.

The concept of leadership as a set of characteristics belonging to an individual was considered inadequate to account for a complete analysis of the leadership phenomenon by the authors of general leadership, especially after Stogdill's exhaustive studies in 1948. This point was recognized by some writers of recreation leadership literature. Rodney and Ford (1971:123), for example, stated:

> Too often the term [leadership] has been identified with a personality type, a person whose social and physical characteristics are such that he is endowed by nature with what is known as leadership ability. And this fiction is still believed by many.

Be that as it may, this review demonstrates quite clearly that old concepts die hard. Meyer and Brightbill in 1956a claimed there were general qualities expected of every leader: (1) broad interest in society, a genuine enthusiasm for one's work, ideals, good judgement, integrity, responsibility, initiative and resourcefulness; (2) patience, dependability, devotion, a sense of humour, and courtesy, (3) the related qualities of efficiency, thoroughness, accuracy, promptness, and industry; (4) a feeling that a leader has a good amount of common

Table 4

Descriptions of a Recreation Leader from the Literature

Characteristic		Author(s)	Date
Ability	to get along with others	Harbin	1940
		Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
		Yukic	1970
		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Weiskopf	1975
	to coordinate group members	Douglass	1957
	to present ideas	Preziosio	1960
	to organize and operate programmes	Ball	1964
	to understand himself	Dimock	1956b
Accuracy		Harbin	1940
		Meyer and Brightbill	1956b
Administrative Skill		Ball	1964
Aggressive	in the nice sense of the word	Fejes	1942
Alert		Harbin	1940
Alertness		Preziosio	1960
Broad Interest	in society	Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
		Kraus and Bates	1975
	liberal education	Ball	1964
Cannot Be Intimidated		van der Smissen	1965

Table 4

(Continued)

Characteristic		Author(s)	Date
Capability		Tillman	1973
Charisma	"X" quality	Vannier	1977
Clear Concept of Goals		Tillman	1973
		Kraus and Bates	1975
Common Sense		Harbin	1940
		Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
		Butler	1967
		Yukic	1954
Community	intelligence	Overstreet	1939
Confidence		Tillman	1973
		Kraus and Bates	1975
Cooperation		Weisse	1960
Cooperative	attitude	Jensen	1977
Courage		Harbin	1940
		Vannier	1977
	of convictions	Hjelte and Shivers	1978
Courtesy		Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
Creativity		Weisse	1960

Table 4

(Continued)

Characteristic		Author(s)	Date
Dedicated		Butler	1967
		Tillman	1973
		Vannier	1977
Democratic	attitude and procedure	Overstreet	1939
Dependability		Harbin	1940
		Shivers	1963
		Tillman	1973
		Vannier	1977
Desire	to serve people	Harbin	1940
		Yukic	1954
		Edginton *et al.*	1980
Devotion	to duty	Harbin	1940
		Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
Dignity		Weisse	1960
Discretion		Harbin	1940
		Shivers	1963
		Weiskopf	1975
Efficiency		Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
Emotional	maturity	Overstreet	1939
Empathy		Shivers	1963

Table 4

(Continued)

Characteristic	Author(s)	Date
Empathy (continued)	Kraus and Bates	1975
	Hjelte and Shivers	1978
	Edginton and Williams	1978
	Jensen	1977
Energy	Fejes	1942
	Kraus and Bates	1975
	Weiskopf	1975
Enthusiasm	Fejes	1942
	Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
	Butler	1967
	Weiskopf	1975
	Vannier	1977
Fair	Harbin	1940
	Tillman	1973
Flexibility	Kraus and Bates	1975
	Weiskopf	1975
	Vannier	1977
Friendly	Harbin	1940
	Weiskopf	1975
Good communications	Shivers	1963
	Tillman	1973
	Kraus and Bates	1975
	Weiskopf	1975

Table 4

(Continued)

Characteristic		Author(s)	Date
Good	judgement	Harbin	1940
		Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
		Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Vannier	1977
		Jensen	1977
	sportsmanship	Wood	1938
Happiness	in the work	Overstreet	1939
Have	a philosophy of recreation	Ball	1964
Help	members fit into group	Douglass	1956a
Helpful	in attaining group goals	Douglass	1956a
High	moral standards	Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
		Butler	1967
		Kraus and Bates	1975
Honesty		Harbin	1940
		Sutherland	1956
		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Edginton and Williams	1978
Human-ness		Douglass	1956a
Industry		Harbin	1940
		Meyer and Brightbill	1956a

Table 4

(Continued)

Characteristic		Author(s)	Date
Ingenuity	with material	Overstreet	1939
Initiative		Harbin	1940
		Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
		Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
		Weisse	1960
		Shivers	1963
		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Weiskopf	1975
Inquisitive		Harbin	1940
Inspirational		Tillman	1973
	for group activity	Douglass	1956a
Integrity		Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
		Sutherland	1956
		Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
		Shivers	1963
		Tillman	1973
		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Vannier	1977
		Edginton and Williams	1978
		Jensen	1977
Interest	in group - not self	Douglass	1956a
	in society	Jensen	1977
Intelligence		Harbin	1940

Table 4

(Continued)

Characteristic		Author(s)	Date
Intelligence (continued)		Shivers	1963
		Butler	1967
		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Vannier	1977
Judgement		Preziosio	1960
Keen	perceptions	Harbin	1940
	sense of values	Harbin	1940
Knowledge		Harbin	1940
		Shivers	1963
		Tillman	1973
		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Edginton *et al.*	1980
	of skills	Harbin	1940
		Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
		Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
		Shivers	1963
		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Weiskopf	1975
		Vannier	1977
		Jensen	1977
Like	people	Fejes	1942
Long	patience	Overstreet	1939
Love	for people	Harbin	1940

Table 4

(Continued)

Characteristic		Author(s)	Date
Love	for people (continued)	Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
		Vannier	1977
Loyalty	to organization	Harbin	1940
		Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
		Shivers	1963
		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Weiskopf	1975
		Jensen	1977
Maturity		Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
		Preziosio	1960
		Kraus and Bates	1975
Modest		Wood	1938
Neat	appearance	Fejes	1942
Nice	supply of personality	Fejes	1942
Not	satisfied with the status quo	van der Smissen	1965
Objectivity		Edginton and Williams	1978
Open-minded		Harbin	1940
Organizing	ability	Butler	1967
		Weiskopf	1975

Table 4

(Continued)

Characteristic		Author(s)	Date
Patience		Harbin	1940
		Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Weiskopf	1975
		Jensen	1977
Perseverance		Harbin	1940
		Shivers	1963
Personal	ambition	Kraus and Bates	1975
		Weiskopf	1975
	attractiveness, appearance, care	Harbin	1940
		Shivers	1963
		Tillman	1973
		Weiskopf	1975
		Vannier	1977
Physical	well-being	Harbin	1940
		Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
		Shivers	1963
		Butler	1967
		Yukic	1970
		Tillman	1973
Physically fit		Fejes	1942
Pleasing	personality	Harbin	1940
		Yukic	1954
		Weiskopf	1975

Table 4

(Continued)

Characteristic	Author(s)	Date
Pleasant voice	Fejes	1942
Productive energy	Butler	1967
	Yukic	1954
	Weiskopf	1975
Professional manner	Preziosio	1960
	Edginton *et al.*	1980
Promptness	Harbin	1940
	Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
Recognizes individual differences	Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
	Tillman	1973
	Weiskopf	1975
Resourceful	Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
	Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
	Weiskopf	1975
Responsibility	Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
	Amer. Camp. Assoc.	1960
	Weisse	1960
	Shivers	1963
	Kraus and Bates	1975
Retentive memory	Harbin	1940
Seeks to be knowledgeable	van der Smissen	1965

Table 4

(Continued)

Characteristic		Author(s)	Date
Self-	sacrificing	Tillman	1973
	starter	Harbin	1940
		Kraus and Bates	1975
	reliant	Wood	1938
	knowledge	Edginton and Williams	1978
Sense	of human worth	Butler	1967
		Yukic	1954
		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Weiskopf	1975
	of humour	Wood	1938
		Overstreet	1939
		Harbin	1940
		Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
		Butler	1967
		Yukic	1954
		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Weiskopf	1975
		Vannier	1977
		Jensen	1977
Sincere		Wood	1938
	- tolerance	Overstreet	1939
Sincerity		Edginton and Williams	1978
Skill	in interpersonal relationships	Laird and Laird	1956

Table 4

(Continued)

Characteristic		Author(s)	Date
Skill	in a particular field and several avocations	Overstreet	1939
	in working with people	Ball	1964
Social	adaptability	Preziosio	1960
Stature		Preziosio	1960
Stick-to-it-iveness		Harbin	1940
		Kraus and Bates	1975
Sympathetic		Fejes	1942
Tact		Wood	1938
Technical Skill		Laird and Laird	1956
		Ball	1964
Thoroughness		Harbin	1940
		Meyer and Brightbill	1956a
Tolerance		Harbin	1940
		Weisse	1960
		Shivers	1963
Understanding		Fejes	1942
		Weisse	1960
Warmth		Harbin	1940

Table 4

(Continued)

Characteristic		Author(s)	Date
Warmth (continued)		Kraus and Bates	1975
		Jensen	1977
Willingness	to be helpful	Sutherland	1956
Wisdom	with people	Overstreet	1939
Zest	for life	Vannier	1977

sense and with it a scientific attitude and approach to the job (Meyer and Brightbill, 1956b:163). The theme continues. Kraus and Bates (1975) conceived of successful recreation leadership in terms of the specific personal qualities of the leader. They listed twenty such qualities. "The ability to work effectively with others," "the ability to think clearly and logically," "skill in communicating effectively with others," "emotional and psychological maturity" are some. Vannier (1977) listed eight essential personal qualities for recreation leaders. She included: "a love for people . . .," "the courage to try something new," "personal attractiveness," and "a sense of humour and zest for life" (1977:27). Weiskopf (1975) listed twenty-five qualities expected of all professional recreation leaders. Some are: (1) an understanding of the interests and needs of people, (2) a pleasing, friendly person who is liked by his followers, (3) a good sense of humour, (4) an abundance of energy and contagious enthusiasm, (5) a capacity for patience, imagination, flexibility, creativity and ingenuity, (6) to lead democratically by accepting the opinions and personalities of others, by being open-minded, and (7) takes pride in his programme and the organization he represents. Throughout the review of recreation leadership literature, it was found that there is a steadfast belief in American democracy, and there is an adherence to an idealistic set of personal characteristics deemed desirable, if not essential, for democratic recreation leaders.

Writers of recreation leadership literature appear to be ardent supporters of trait theory. One hundred and six different characteristics of recreation leaders were reported by twenty-two authors in the period 1938 to 1981. Also included in the literature are lists of personal qualities expected of a recreation leader written over the same period of time. An examination of how many of these characteristics and personal qualities are needed before a recreation leader is effective would most likely show the same results as those found when trait theories of leadership were examined by reviewers of non-recreation leadership literature. The interest in leader traits in the recreation field persists to this day (Sessoms and Stevenson, 1981).

Leadership behaviour. There is some difficulty in differentiating leadership characteristics, leadership behaviour, and leadership style when reviewing recreation leadership literature. A similar difficulty was noted in the review of non-recreation leadership literature (Chapter 2) and use was made of a dictionary to resolve the difficulty. In this section, where the authors have labelled the characteristics or style as behaviour, it will be reported as behaviour.

Writers of recreation leadership literature regard leadership as interpersonal behaviours. Danford (1964) regarded leadership as what a person does to help a group to decide upon common goals and to carry out effectively the measures leading to the accomplishment of those goals. The leader leads by: (1) teaching basic skills, (2) teaching social and moral behaviours, (3) assigning responsibilities to group members, (4) establishing a friendly atmosphere, (5) assisting each group member to achieve a measure of success, and (6) inspiring and influencing the group member to accept the common good as his highest aim (Danford, 1964:80).

Interpersonal behaviour was considered as "basis for leadership" by Shivers (1978:114), and he thought that leaders apparently had this attitude to a rather high degree. Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates (1981) saw one aspect of the leadership of "face-to-face" recreation leaders as being a set of interpersonal behaviours. Such interpersonal behaviours include: (1) communicating, (2) assisting, (3) rebuking, (4) inspiring, and (5) motivating members of the leader's group. Communicating behaviour seems to be important for recreationists. Shivers (1978) maintained that leadership required a high level of communication and that there were clear lines of communication between leader and followers, interpersonal behaviours were improved. Weiskopf (1975) thought that success or failure in leadership is often determined by how well the leaders communicate with their followers.

The belief in democracy is prevalent in references to leadership behaviour in recreation leadership literature. Most authors draw upon Lippitt and White's (1943) classic experiment in the 1930's for support. Danford cited the study on leadership behaviour to emphasize that the democratic outcomes of any recreation programme call for "a particular kind of leader" (Danford, 1964:87). Shivers (1978) believes that the "true" leader is one who exists in a "democratic" rather than an "authoritarian" environment. The "true" leader is socially perceptive which enables him to determine the needs and desires of the group members and "to develop shared goals toward which each member strives" (Shivers, 1978:114). Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates (1981) recommend "democratic" behaviour as being more effective than "autocratic" or "laissez-faire" behaviour.

In summary, writers of recreation leadership literature tend to use the terms leadership characteristics, leadership behaviour, and leadership style synonymously, causing difficulty in categorizing their commentaries. This review, therefore, included in this section on leadership behaviour only those commentaries which actually used the term "behaviour." From the review it was found that writers of recreation leadership literature regard leadership as interpersonal behaviours; those behaviours by the leader directed at members of his group. Employing proper communications is regarded as one of the important interpersonal behaviours, and writers of recreation leadership literature regard behaving in a "democratic" manner preferable to behaving in an "authoritarian" or "laissez-faire" manner.

Leadership style. Leadership behaviour and leadership style are used interchangeably in recreation leadership literature. This section of emphasis on the individual will attempt to point out the essence of leadership style as seen by the few writers who utilized the term. It will be seen that here, as in the leadership behaviour section, the style of leadership recommended by writers of recreation leadership literature is the "democratic" style. In all cases where the recommendation is made, the studies by Lippitt and White (1943) are referenced.

Danford (1964) prefaced his commentary on "democratic and autocratic leadership" by stating:

> The one study which has contributed most to an understanding of the differences in the techniques and outcomes of democratic and autocratic leadership is the study by Lewin, Lippitt, and White at the University of Iowa (p. 85).

He concluded his summary of the discussion of the study with: "The achievement of democratic outcomes calls for a particular kind of recreation, conducted by a particular kind of leader in a particular kind of way" (Danford, 1964:87).

Danford gave the rather presumptuous title to the summary of his chapter on the nature of leadership as "a call to greatness" and claimed:

> Transcending in importance all other needs in recreation today is the imperative need of superior leadership. The contributions of a recreation department to the life of a community will rise no higher than the quality of its leaders. Potentially, leisure, as in ancient Greece, is an opportunity for greatness; time in which to live life at its fullest; time to fashion a new Golden Age as our people channel their creative energies into cultural pursuits that enable both the individual and the nation; time to join with others in community activities that elevate the tenor of human relationships and strengthen our democratic society (Danford, 1964:102).

Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates continued the reporting of the 1938 Lewin studies:

> One might conclude that in recreation situations, in which the satisfaction of group members, their development in terms of personal growth and maturity, and their ability to function well as members of society are key goals, democratic leadership is the most appropriate (Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates, 1981:81).

Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) also reported the work of Lewin, Lippitt, and White and related the notions of "autocratic," "democratic," and "laissez-faire" leadership to the theories of McGregor (1960) and Blake and Mouton (1964). They claim autocratic leadership style is akin to McGregor's "Theory X" and moving toward the 9,1 style on the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid. The democratic style of leadership is related to McGregor's "Theory Y" and to "leaning toward" a 7,7 to a 9,9 style of management on the Managerial Grid. The style of leadership known as "laissez-faire" does not apply to either "Theory X" or "Theory Y," but tends toward 1,1 on the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid. Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) discussed the "Tannenbaum-Schmidt Continuum of Leadership Behaviour (1958)" as a useful means to aid new leaders to decide upon appropriate leadership styles ("Boss-Centred Leadership" or "Subordinate-Centred Leadership").

They concluded the "literature review" by including consideration of Bennis' "Agricultural Model" (where people, resources, and ideas can be seeded, activated, and integrated to optimum effectiveness and growth). Analysis of all of these approaches to leadership style, they claim, will assist the recreation professional to be more effective. According to Sessoms and Stevenson, recreation professionals:

> . . . . believe in trust, openness, and honesty among members of their staff or team. They know how their behaviour can increase these qualities and conduct themselves to accomplish this increase. They believe in making more leaders and work to enable leadership capacity of each one in the group to be recognized and developed. They become democratic leaders, and as such take their lead from someone or something greater than themselves. While they may or may not be religious in the sense of being actively identified with a church, they nevertheless have a 'spiritual nature' recognizing the worth of others. When this is a part of their nature, it is communicated both visually and non-visually, and the atmosphere of the group shows it . . . . Their approach to leadership should be democratic and positive (Sessoms and Stevenson, 1981:44).

Sessoms and Stevenson carry on the tradition that recreation leaders are encouraged to adopt a democratic leadership style.

In summary, leadership style in recreation leadership literature is somewhat indistinguishable for leadership behaviour. Some writers have included the term "style" as separate sections of their discussions on recreation leadership. These writers have referred to the classical leadership studies of Lippitt and White (1943) as support for their recommendations that recreation leaders should adopt a "democratic" approach to leadership rather than the "autocratic" and "laissez-faire" approaches. Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) related the Lippitt and White studies to McGregor's (1960) "Theory X" and "Theory Y" and Blake and Mouton's (1964) Managerial Grid. They also incorporated Bennis' (1969) "Agricultural Model" and the "Tannenbaum-Schmidt Continuum of Leadership Behaviour" (1958) to help recreation leaders in their consideration of an appropriate style for leadership effectiveness. Danford's (1964) sense of "the mission of recreation in a democratic society" pervades the literature and is still present in current works (Sessoms and Stevenson, 1981).

Emphasis on the Group

This section will discuss the role the "group" plays in recreation leadership literature. Most writers of recreation leadership literature realize that recreationists work with groups.

Group processes. Group processes deal with the relationships between groups and leadership. Shivers (1963) devoted one full chapter (Chapter 7) to leadership and the group process. He referred to the "better professional literature," compiled by Kretch and Crutchfield (1948), Cattell (1951), Redl (1942), and Smith (1945), among others, to discuss the various components of the study of groups as background to his commentaries on recreation leadership. Kretch and Crutchfield (1948) and Cattell (1951) helped Shivers define groups, as did Smith (1945) and Redl (1942). Shivers used the work of Cattell (1951) to elaborate on the study of group dynamics. To Shivers, "one term which has been repeated very often, one which is essential to the entire concept of leadership, is group" (Shivers, 1963:144). Any explanation of leadership inevitably leads to aspects of the group situation: "In the field of recreation service, we must of necessity speak of social groups and the leadership of such groups" (Shivers, 1963:144). Shivers claimed that the recreationist must enjoy comprehension of group dynamics and human relations if he were to operate effectively. Kraus and Bates (1975) regarded group dynamics as an important area of understanding for people concerned with recreation leadership and supervision:

> Knowledge about how groups operate . . . is directly useful to those working on any level of leadership, supervision, or administration in that it helps a worker understand the behaviour of others within the group, the overall influence of the group, and, finally, his or her own attitudes and responses to others (Kraus and Bates, 1975:41).

Kraus and Bates believed that recreation leaders and supervisors should be knowledgeable of the significance of group dynamics. Recreation leaders and supervisors need to understand how groups function, their values, and how they may be utilized to enrich programme outcomes for all participants.

The understanding of group dynamics and the processes of group work appear to be regarded as essential for those in recreation. leadership positions.

Group interaction. Although little distinction is made between group processes and group interaction in recreation leadership literature, reported here are some of the more obvious references to what may be construed as interaction between the leader and the group, between group members themselves, and between the group and its environment. Recreation leadership writers have relied heavily on research in group behaviour to make their points, possibly to the extent that the recreation service may be confused with "group work" itself. For Carlson, Deppe, and McLean (1963), however, group work is regarded as a method for recreation leaders and not synonymous with recreation. By using the knowledge and techniques employed in group work, recreation leaders may more effectively achieve their own ends, the achievement of desired goals. Weiskopf (1975) echoed the above sentiments emphasizing group participation in recreation: "Group work and recreation are not synonymous. However, participation in group recreation activity may be one method of achieving desired goals" (Weiskoph, 1975:15).

Butler (1967) regarded the group as an opportunity to further the recreation ideal of self-leadership: "The chief function of professional recreation leadership for young people and adults is to draw out, strengthen, and put into action the leadership capacities inherent in the members of the group" (p. 104). Shivers (1963) reported the study conducted by Bavelas and Lewin (1942) in which different styles of recreation (summer camp) leadership and its effects on group interaction were examined. The study tested democratic and authoritarian styles of leadership, as did Lippitt and White's (1943) study under Kurt Lewin. The results are similar. Bavelas and Lewin concluded that democratic leadership relates positively to cooperation, helpfulness, and more satisfaction, outcomes considered desirably by recreation authors espousing democratic ideals.

Kraus and Bates (1975) in their work on group leadership called upon the works of (1) Cartwright and Zander (1968) to discuss basic research approaches and the effectiveness of group leaders, (2) Hare (1962) to discuss the effects of social pressure on group members, (3) Shaw (1971) to discuss group structure, and (4) Lewin (1951) to discuss behaviour in the group. Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates (1981) reinterated very similar comments on group leadership to those contained in their 1975 work. Of interest is the additional material which reports the group building functions and the task functions of groups based on the work of Knowles and Knowles in 1972. Knowles and Knowles made no distinction between the functions of leaders and the functions of group members. "This is because the research fails to identify any set of functions that is universally the peculiar responsibility of the designated leader" (Knowles and Knowles, 1972:57). Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates (1981) claim the leader can perform both group-building and task functions.

Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) in discussing the "forces affecting the functioning of groups" also utilize the concept of "forces" utilized by Knowles and Knowles (1972). They discuss such "external" forces as "time," "space," "acoustics," "refreshments," and such "internal" forces as "group size," "sex and age of members," "communication pattern," each of which affects group members' behaviours. These forces are to be considered by recreation leaders in helping to explain their own behaviour, behaviour of the group members, and the consequent interaction.

Shivers, (1963), perhaps summed the recreationist's approach to working with groups to achieve recreational ends by claiming:

> Prolonged association with professional persons placed with the group to modify attitudes or influence members toward objectives which will help them to develop emotionally, socially, culturally, and educationally through the interacting processes of group life and recreation pursuits, may prove helpful to the individual in reducing stress and providing success for him. This is the objective toward which the recreationist strives. Such a task is the concern of the dedicated leader in the field of recreational service (p. 175).

The above quotation also serves to clearly indicate the zealot approach adopted by many writers of recreation leadership literature.

In this section was reported the reliance on group related research to aid in the achievement of what some recreationists regard as desirable goals. Some writers claim that knowledge of the various interactions which take place in groups is essential to the recreation leader in order that he might be more effective in helping group members achieve desired goals within their various recreational pursuits.

Organization as a group. No specific categories of leadership relating to the organization as a group were found in the recreation leadership literature. Frequent references were made, however, to those theories found in the non-recreation leadership literature which dealt with the human side of enterprise. Shivers (1963) realized the value of small group research such as conducted by Bales (1950) and seemed to favour the human relations approach to leadership for the recreation field:

> The basic function of the recreationist within the public agency is in working and communicating with and understanding human beings and their individual behavioural patterns. The recreationist must determine the interests and needs of those whom he will serve and then perform those specific duties and responsibilities which will enable people to satisfy their recreational needs (Shivers, 1963: 308).

Edginton and Williams (1978) referred to the Ohio State University studies in which the dimensions of "consideration" and "initiation of structure" were found to be important aspects of leadership behaviour in groups. The Michigan Leadership studies were mentioned, also, in which principles governing group productivity and group member satisfaction in the work situation were analyzed. Other theories were discussed such as the Coch and French survey of the 1940's (Katz, Maccoby and Morse, 1950), the Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964), Fiedler's Contingency Model (1967), "The Influential System Model" (Hollander and Julian, 1969), Hershey and Blanchard's Life-Cycle

Theory, as well as a combination of Maslow's and Herzberg's theories (Hershey and Blanchard, 1972). Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) included McGregor's "Theory X and Theory Y" (1960), and the new Managerial Grid of Blake and Mouton (1978).

Summary. Under the category of "leadership as emphasis on the group" have been discussed the topics of "group processes," "group interaction," and "the organization as a group." The results of the study of group dynamics have been most influential on recreation leadership literature. Recreation authors realize that the recreation leader works with a variety of groups and knowledge about how groups operate is important to the leader's operation. The knowledge of the interactions that take place between leaders and group members, between the group members themselves, and between the group and the environment, can assist recreation leaders to help the group achieve its goals. Democratic style and a thorough understanding of group-building functions and task-orientated functions are recommended to be combined for an effective and appropriate approach to the leadership of recreation groups. Although no direct references to the organization as a group were found in the recreation leadership literature, frequent reference was made to well-known human relations theories, although they were classified under different categories of leadership theories employed by various recreation authors.

Emphasis on the Environment

In this section will be reported various commentaries found in the recreation leadership literature which refer to leadership and the situation, leadership and interaction, and contingency aspects of leadership. It will be noted that most of the commentaries are not derived from the field of recreation itself. Rather, they are reports of the content of non-recreation literature. Some attempts by some recreation leadership writers have been made to relate the studies and findings from other fields to the field of recreation.

Situation theories. Danford (1964) reported that doubts arose with the validity of "group" theories of leadership when observers noted that an individual may be a leader in one group but not in another. This gave rise to "situational" theories of leadership in which leadership was a function of the leader and the situation in which the leadership was taking place. Danford elaborated on six implications for the recreation field. In summary form, these implications are as follows:

> 1. No longer should lengthy lists of traits be compiled; rather study should be made of various situations, groups, and problems to determine what the leader should know, what skills he should acquire and what competencies he should possess in order to establish mutual goals and carry out their attainment. Leaders who possess high moral and ethical qualities and who exemplify in their conduct other qualities of the good citizen in a democracy are still required. The qualities of the leader, however, should be relevant to the situation.
>
> 2. Leaders are made, not born. After the required knowledge, skills, insights, and attitudes are known which persons need if they are to be successful leaders in a variety of situations in the recreation field, potential leaders are to be provided with an education to prepare them for as many situations as possible.
>
> 3. The recreation administrator should study the situation carefully before assigning a leader to a specific task. The leader and the situation should be appraised with equal emphasis.
>
> 4. Students preparing for recreation leadership responsibilities should be encouraged to seek excellence in as many areas as possible.
>
> 5. Leadership is a two-way process; a product of the interaction of human beings. Therefore, the leader needs to be warm, friendly, and cooperative in order to attract people who will like and respect him and will become followers.
>
> 6. Leadership is not a factor in isolation. It can be understood only in relationship to the group, the members of the group, the situation, the problems, the goals, the needs of the group, and the interactions of the members with the leader and with one another (Danford, 1964:82-83).

Kraus and Bates (1975) noted that leaders arise or emerge in situations where their personal qualities or capabilities will be serve group members. Situational theory, Kraus and Bates claimed, has held that leadership selection is most likely to be affected by the needs and demands of a given situation rather than by the possession of part particular traits by an individual. Kraus and Bates, when joined by Carpenter (1981), do not vary from their comments on leadership and the situation.

Interaction theories. Interaction theories refer to the interaction taking place between leader and environmental variables. Some recreation writers, although including their comments under a "Situation" heading, appear to refer more to "interaction". Edginton and Williams (1978) reported the Lewin, Lippitt, and White study of 1939 which indicated that different styles of leadership can produce different types of reactions for similar groups. Edginton and Williams (1978) also referred to the Ohio State University series of studies on leadership commenced in 1945 and claimed their purpose was to analyze situational variables that affect leadership behaviour. The Michigan studies, the Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid (1964) and Fiedler's Contingency Model (1967) were used too by Edginton and Williams to support their stance that leadership is a function of the leader, the employees, and the work situation. Edginton and Williams (1978) stated their definition of recreation leadership was "the process of working with individuals to help them achieve their own needs, aims, and goals" (p.58). Leadership is deemed to be a collaborative process involving action between leader and group and cooperation among group members themselves within the organizational framework of managerial, supervisory, and direct-service delivery systems. According to Carlson, Deppe, and McLean (1963), the old, untrained play leader who passed out the equipment and stayed to see that the facility was not harmed or to break up fights is being replaced by the personable recreation leader, trained in the understanding of the interrelationships of people as well as in the broad field of recreation pursuits.

Contingency theories. Contingency theories are the latest extension of situational theory and their presence has not escaped notice in the recent recreation leadership literature. Carlson, Deppe, and McLean (1963), however, were aware that effective recreation programming depended on a variety of environmental constraints which needed to be considered by the leader. Some of these conditions are: (1) the needs and interests of the participants, (2) the season, (3) the time of day, (4) sex and ability of participants, (5) educational characteristics of participants, and (6) economic factors. Edginton and Williams (1978) recognized that awareness of environmental constraints was associated with successful recreation and leisure operations. Included in their list of environmental constraints were : (1) the consumer, (2) the social environment, (3) the political environment, (4) the physical environment, and (5) the economic environment. Edginton and Williams see leadership broadly defined as (1) the exercise of authority, (2) the process of decision making, (3) the dynamic process of interaction , (4) the process of communication, (5) the ability to persuade and direct, and (6) the process of influence (Edginton and Williams, 1980:58).

Summary. The relationship of recreation leadership to the various constraints of the environment has not gone unnoticed by writers of recreation leadership literature. As situational theories of leadership developed, their influence was felt in the recreation literature, causing some writers to pay due regard to the situation in which leaders performed as well as to leaders' personal characteristics. Although utilizing "situation" as a heading for their commentaries, some recreation authors discussed only the interactions between leaders and members of their groups. As contingency theories of leadership began to take up the greater part of the interests of leadership theorists in other fields, recreation authors reported their findings. A few recreation authors took time to consider the implications of these newer theories for the recreation field. Others just reported the theories and findings as part of an up-to-date review of leadership investigations, presumably with the understanding that the findings would apply to any situation, including the field of recreation and leisure services (Edginton and Williams, 1978:216).

Leadership Training and Experience

Leadership training and leadership experience are recognized as important aspects of recreation leadership in the recreation leadership literature. There is more reference to the training aspect than to the experience aspect, although several writers discuss both aspects together. In-service or on-the-job training are regarded as a combination of training and experience. In this section, leadership training and leadership experience will be discussed under separate headings. There will be occasions, however, where the terms "training" and "experience" will appear together under each of the separate headings.

Leadership training. This section deals with the topic of training for leadership as found in recreation leadership literature. Pointed out is the concern for adequately and appropriately trained leaders in the recreation field. This notion is expressed by a variety of authors over a considerable time period. Some writers have chosen to elaborate on the "essential" content of training sessions or courses at tertiary-level institutions, others have stressed the uniqueness of recreation service, and still others have argued for more up-to-date training techniques to meet the needs of modern-day recreation service organizations. Briefly discussed are some problems associated with the training of recreation personnel and the unchanging nature of some of these problems.

Writers of recreation leadership literature have emphasized that adequate and proper training of recreation leaders is essential to the adequate provision of recreation and leisure services. The following quotations span a period of 30 years, from 1934 to 1964:

> . . . Dr. John Brown of the International Committee of the YMCA emphasized the fact that the success of the recreation program depends upon, first, the efficiency of professional leadership and second, the efficiency of executive leadership. In discussing how to increase the standards of training, he mentioned severl items affecting those already in service, suggesting the following methods of improvement. First, by retaining those marked ability, making conditions more satisfactory for them. Second, by getting rid of the unfit, those who are poor examples and are retarding progress. Third, by recruiting those of potential leadership in the field, with emphasis upon cultural, professional, and character elements. Fourth, by giving specific training courses to those on the job and in service. Fifth, by developing a science of friendly counsel, using case studies of successful and professional leaders (Laporte, 1934).

> In 'Recreation Leadership' college course name the student not only analyzes personality but tries to improve her own personality and ability to influence people. When she becomes aware of the personality traits which the play leader is trying to help the child

develop, and when she realizes to what extent her qualities are reflected in the child, she begins to be truly self critical. Personality defects such as insincerity, lack of sense of humor, conceit, tactlessness, lack of self-reliance and poor sportsmanship are obvious (Wood, 1938).

The curriculum (for an undergraduate degree in recreation) should be limited to students with many interests, a variety of skills, and necessary personality qualifications (May, 1941).

Realizing that the key to the success of the camp depended upon obtaining competent and well-trained leadership, great care was taken in the selection of staff members . . . All of the counsellors were public school teachers or seniors or graduate students in plysical education at Baylor University (Mason, 1945b).

Until the teacher training institutions and the state departments for certification of teachers include in their requirements recreation education, we cannot consider teachers qualified in this area. If we do so, we are then violating the basic principle upon which certification and professional preparation are based; that is, the satisfactory completion of courses of study in the field for which the person is to be certified to teach (Dresser, 1954).

Let us rub the sand out of our eyes and tackle this problem at its source - leadership. This means trained college graduates in recreation and/or group work, additional in-service training for the present employees, and, in spite of the howls of the neighbourhood, the recognition of the importance of trained leadership by refusing to open areas when qualified (playground) directors are not available (Meek, 1958).

The future of recreation lies in the recruitment, the training, and retention of qualified leadership. . . . On the assumption that there will be more people - young and old - needing and seeking satisfying recreation; more money, but not enough; more trained and volunteer recreation leaders, but not enough, and not soon enough; how can we maintain and improve the quality of recreation in the United States? The answer seems to lie in the word "leadership" - the recruitment, training, and retention of qualified leadership (Champlin, 1959).

The recreation movement and its profession depend upon leadership. Professional preparation, therefore, is the heart of our concern (Sutherland, 1960).

> Professional preparation for recreation services seems to involve five major areas. As a base one needs a broad liberal education which will give an understanding of today's cultures and the cultures from which they have developed. Then, recreation personnel must understand - psychologically and emotionally, physiologically, and sociologically. To these basic understandings of people and the society in which they live, one must add certain specific competencies particularly germane to recreation service. Recreation personnel must know certain skills which people most frequently use for recreative experiences. These include art, crafts, social activities, and water activities. The second major competency is the ability to work with people as individuals, in groups, or en masse. A third area of competency is in program development, organization, operation, and evaluation. Fourthly, recreation leaders must understand recreation services administration including resource planning and development, financing (public, private, and commercial), personnel management, and public relations. Finally, a philosophy of recreation should permeate all these competencies (Ball, 1964).

Meyer and Brightbill (1956a) asserted that leadership was a resource which must be strengthened greatly in recreation. The success of organized recreation, they claimed, is primarily dependent upon the quality and availability of professional personnel associated with the field. They called for more efforts to strengthen all forms of recreation education and training, including on-the-job (in-service) training. While the cardinal emphasis of training was to be on general recreation, a need existed for more specialized training for industrial recreation leaders, rural workers, hospital and institutional personnel, park administrators, camp directors, and commercial operators.

In 1967, Butler agreed with sentiments of Meyer and Brightbill. He argued that the standards being adopted by the profession make college graduation, or its educational equivalent, a basic requirement for professional recreation positions. The increase in people's leisure, the expansion in recreation programmes, and the growing demand for recreation leadership, all called for educational institutions to face seriously the need to properly train workers for the field. He thought recreation students needed to have:

1. an understanding of recreation, its nature, development, and significance in our civilization
2. familiarity with the various programme areas and personal skills in at least two of them
3. an understanding of methods and procedures needed to organize and administer a recreation programme, and
4. a directed field experience as an essential part of recreation education (Butler, 1967:122-123).

Butler noticed that for many **encumbent** recreation workers, who may have come from other disciplines (music, social work, drama, or religious education), much of their knowledge of recreation activities, of organization, of facilities, and of leadership was acquired through in-service programmes. Butler emphasized that no recreation department could afford to neglect its training programme, and the need for insergice training will continue. As Meyer and Brightbill said:

> Pre-entry, in-service, and refresher training can in no way be considered independent or separate units of the training programme. All must be related to each other and to the objectives of the community recreation programme (Meyer and Brightbill, 1956a: 236).

Meyer and Brightbill (1956a) and Butler (1967) wrote of the beginnings of college programmes for the training of recreational personnel. They tended to emphasize what "should" constitute curricula and concentrated on the apparent requirements of trainees to serve community recreation programmes. Edginton and Williams (1978) emphasized the need for training for production-oriented management situations. "Personnel management can be thought of as a staff function within an organization, supporting the primary line functions of creating, distributing, and financing services within the leisure delivery system" (Edginton and Williams, 1978:371). They accepted the view that "the recruitment of highly qualified staff plays an important role in the development of an organization's human resources" p. 372), while "training is essentially the responsibility of the employee's immediate superior" (p. 398). Their definition of training was "a process that organizations utilize to change employee behaviour" (p. 399). For the process of "developmental training", Edginton and Williams emphasized the improvement of work performance by providing individuals with opportunities to expand "their personal knowledge, skills, and ability" (p. 404). They cited Edginton and Eldridge (1975) work on the aspects of developmental training, claiming that this type of long-term training (orientation and in-service training programmes are considered to be short-range) allows individuals to expand their abilities and capacities and help them satisfy their needs for growth. However, as Edginton and Eldridge stated:

> . . .developmental training is a programme which, once initiated, continues until organizational goals are achieved rather than the actual ultimate maximization of an individual's potential for growth (Edginton and Eldridge, 1975:12-13).

This observation serves to point out that the developmental training process is designed to improve the abilities and capacities of the individual in the organization in an attempt towards the accomplishment of the organization's goals.

Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates (1981) adopted the earlier approach of Meyer and Brightbill and Butler:

> 1. Many individuals entering work in recreation and parks tend not to have been prepared specifically in this field. Although they may have the needed leadership skills and personal qualities, it is important that they be given a fuller understanding of the goals of recreation and of the agency that has employed them.
>
> 2. Recreation involves many different settings and types of services, all of which require knowledgeable and responsive leadership. In many cases, it is necessary to provide ongoing training in specific areas of leadership methodology, group dynamics, and human relations.

> 3. Evaluation is particularly crucial because work output in recreation is not as readily determined as in other fields in which it may be easier to measure an individual's accomplishment (e.g., caseloads handled, number of insurance policies sold or amount of products manufactured) (Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates, 1981:268).

On the other hand, contempories of Kraus, Carpenter and Bates, Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) tended to support Edginton and Williams (1978) and Edginton and Eldridge (1975). They maintained that any organization, be it a large, production-oriented one or a small city recreation department, exists and grows because it provides products and services which the groups it serves sees as being worthwhile. The end result of all learning is behaviour change, according to Sessoms and Stevenson, and the objective of leadership development (leadership training and leadership development are synonymous) is the more efficient achievement of an organization's goals through the optimal effort of its employees. They claim leadership development can be effected in several situations and settings, such as formal education programmes of high schools, colleges, and universities, and various in-service and on-the-job training.

Minshall (1980), coordinator of the University of Ottawa, Recreology Department's project on a Survey of Recreation Problems, uncovered a variety of problems facing the recreation practitioner, among them several dealing with the aspect of training of recreation personnel:

> The field of recreation is growing at such an incredible pace it is difficult to find staff who have the appropriate training. It is more difficult to find opportunities for those already employed.
>
> Standardization of certification of recreational professionals is long overdue.

> There should be more diversified training (i.e.,programme, facilities, concessions) available.
>
> There is a lack of training in maintenance skills. . . (p.26).

Some recreation personnel problems encountered by Minshall dealt with training superficially, but may have had their origins elsewhere:

> Because we are a rural region, we encounter a shortage of trained instructors and leaders to conduct our programmes. This is especially true with activities that are new to the area. We often find it necessary to bring people from urban centres at great cost. We are attempting to train our own leaders at the local level and we are beginning to see some results. But it takes time and money (Minshall, 1980:26).

Some of the problems unearthed by Minshall have existed for some time. Meyer and Brightbill, in 1956, indicated some trends and practices in which progress was being made:

> 1. Various jobs demand different qualifications, and this fact should always be considered in the choice of leaders.
> 2. The field is improving its nomenclature and moving toward uniformity in accepted standards.
> 3. There is keener recognition of the need for specialized skills.
> 4. The field will no longer tolerate everyone who presents himself with training as a professional recreation leader. The time is at hand for all levels of government interests in recreation to establish personnel prerequisites and standards, and enact proper legislation (Meyer and Brightbill, 1956b:139).

In 1967, Butler stated that with the expansion of recreation facilities and programmes, the need for trained, competent leadership became increasingly apparent (Butler, 1967:81-82). There is some indication that those problems now endured will continue as municipal governments struggle with fiscal restraints, increasing inflation, the reduction of human services to cut overhead, and the current movement toward consolidation of urban departments into one superagency in the interests of increased efficiency without loss of service (Hjelte and Shivers, 1978:224-228). According to Weiskopf (1975), "curricula in recreation and parks are being challenged. The traditional approaches and methods are being questioned and examined and significant changes are occurring" (Weiskopf, 1975:338). Reliance by college recreation curricula on the behavoural sciences, the humanities, and social and natural sciences is increasing. Hjelte and Shivers (1978) realized the changes required to upgrade recreation managers and included discussion of modern budgeting procedures and the use of electronic data processing methods in their work. Edginton and Williams (1978) referred to the various methods used in the training of supervisory staff which are in vogue: lecture, coaching, the case method, role playing, risk technique, human relations training (including sensitivity training, management games, and the conference method) (Edginton and Williams, 1978:414-417).

This section has observed that leadership training has been particularly important to the recreation field. Several authors, over a considerable period of time, have argued that adequate and appropriate training of leaders is of paramount importance in order to properly serve community recreation service needs. Suggestions as to content of training courses and in-service programmes have been made by some writers, while others have stressed the need to adopt more modern techniques of training to meet more modern demands. The problems concerning a lack of trained personnel have existed for some time and continue to be ever present as changing agency requirements call for changing approaches to training content and methodologies.

Leadership experience. This section will discuss the views held by some of the writers of recreation leadership literature relating to leadership experience. There does not appear to be an abundant amount of recreation literature dealing with experience as a single entity. Many references to leadership experience are linked with leadership training.

> In 1947, a candidate for "Recreation Leader, Grade 4" had to have the equivalent of graduation from high school and some special training or experience in recreation, physical education, and playground work. If the equivalent of high school graduation could not be offered, two years in high school and a year of experience would suffice.
>
> But, in 1949, the candidate had to have the equivalent of high school graduation, completion of two years in a university, and at least a year of successful experience in recreation activities - six months of which must have been as a leader. In lieu of two years of university, three years of experience would be accepted, with one year of university counting as a year of experience (Philadelphia Recreation Department, 1950).

Corbin (1953) claimed that the requirement of experience as a recreational leader is often instituted by recreation executives. Some administrators specify that the experience should be accrued while in a salaried capacity, while others make no such distinction. Corbin conducted a study in which a group of experts was requested to recommend the amount of experience required for recreation leadership. They were requested also to specify whether the experience should be paid or whether that specification ought not to be a factor in deciding the worthwhileness of the experience. "All agreed that one year of experience should be required, and 75 percent of those questioned agreed that the experience be that of the 'paid' type" (Corbin, 1953:18).

Rodney (1964) believed that a director (or superintendent) of parks required "three years of progressive supervisory or administrative experience in a public park agency" (p.143). No other position, in his discussion of the many types of positions in the area of recreation and parks, apparently warranted experience, although they all needed skills of one sort or another. Neumeyer and Neumeyer (1958) recognized that asking an aspiring young recreation leader how much experience he or she had had was somewhat fruitless. THey recommended a co-operative effort between schools and municipal recreation departments in order to provide some opportunity for young people to gain some experience before applying for more permanent positions.

Butler (1967) has outlined a variety of recreation leadership positions with "appropriate" amounts of experience for each. These are shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Recreation Leadership Positions with Corresponding Amounts of Experience Required

Position	Experience Required
Superintendent of recreation and parks	3-5 years proven, successful, and progressive
Superintendent of recreation	As above
Assistant superintendent of recreation	As above - 1 year graduate study equivalent to 1 year of experience
Recreation supervisor (general)	2-3 years - Master's degree equivalent to one year of experience
Recreation supervisor (special activity)	As above
Recreation center director	1 year or Master's degree in recreation
Assistant recreation center director	6 months or 15 hours graduate study in recreation
Recreation leader (general)	No experience required other than field work at college
Recreation leader (special activity)	3 months or major in recreation with emphasis in special activity
Trainee	Nil

Source: Butler, G.D., Introduction to Community Recreation, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1967.

The amount of experience required, according to Table 5, varies from three months for special activity leaders to three to five years of "proven, successful, and progressive" experience for superintendents' positions. Academic qualifications may be substituted for experience. For example, a master's degree is regarded as being equivalent to one year of experience for supervisors and centre directors and a major in recreation substitutes for three months of experience for a recreation leader of a special activity. Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates (1981) have reported some of the updated experience requirements suggested by the National Recreation and Parks Association in 1977 for people employed in therapeutic recreation positions. A therapeutic recreation assistant required two years of successful, full-time, paid experience or two hundred block-hours in-service training in the field. A theraoeutic recreation technician, level 1, needed an approved 750 hour training programme, while a technician at level 11 needed a Bachelor's degree emphasizing therapeutic recreation, or two years of recreation study and a current position, or two years of skill training and two years' experience in a therapeutic recreation position. Therapeutic recreation leaders required a Bachelor's degree in recreation, or a Bachelor's degree majoring in therapeutic recreation, or any Bachelor's degree with a major in recreation and one year of professional experience. For therapeutic recreation specialists, a Master's degree was needed, or a combination of a Master's degree and experience, or a combination of a Bachelor's degree and more experience.

Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates (1981) listed also four examples of known recreation job descriptions (pp36-40) in which the amount of experience required varied from one year for park manager with a Baccalaureate degree, to five years for a recreation superintendent with either a Baccalaureate degree in recreation leadership or park management or a Master's degree in recreation and park administration.

The mention of leadership experience is not as frequent as the mention of leadership training in the recreation leadership literature. Often, the terms training and experience are linked in content. Writers of recreation leadership recommend varying amounts of experience for the various levels of positions in the recreation field and actual job descriptions include the amount of experience required of successful applicants for those positions.

Summary. Under the heading of "Leadership Training and Experience," have been discussed reports of leadership and training and leadership experience found in recreation leadership literature. Both training and experience have been of some concern to writers of recreation leadership literature for some time and continue to be so. As times change, so does the literature in an apparent attempt to keep relevant and up-to-date. The various authors report new standards for training and experience for recreation leadership as they occur.

Leadership Skills

Leadership skills are reported in three senses in recreation leadership literature. The first sense applies to leadership skills relating to management positions and which correspond to those types of skills reported in the non-recreation leadership literature. The second sense applies to the leading of skill activities which are included as part of recreation services offered to the general public.

In the third sense, the actual acquisition of activity skills is referred to as "leadership." Each sense will be presented separately.

Skills for exercise of management. Edginton and Williams (1978) stated that "a leisure service manager must possess certain skills, knowledge, and ability to be successful"
Adapting Katz's (1955) classification of the skills of an effective manager, Edginton and Williams identify the three areas of skill required by a manager: (1) technical, (2) human, and (3) conceptual. Technical skill refers to the use of one's knowledge for the performance of specific tasks of work, such as the operation and management of a swimming pool. Human skills relate to the motivation of people in the achievement of organizational goals. Conceptual skills refer to the manager's ability to fit the pieces of the organization together in order to meet its goals and objectives. Conceptual skills also include the ability to see the organization in relation to broader environmental factors. Butler (1967) regarded some special qualifications for the recreation executive as a thorough knowledge of the theory and philosophy of recreation; an understanding of community recreation problems; the ability to organize, administer, and operate recreation programmes and areas and facilities; skill in selecting, training, and supervising a staff; a capacity for cooperative action and decision making; and skill in management techniques and interpreting recreation through writing and speech.

Shivers (1963) suggested that, in the choice of executives, care must be taken not to select only on the basis of technical proficiency, prior experience, and knowledge; administrative skill and a capacity for work were also significant. He maintained that the executive level of management in the recreation field demanded a high degree of administrative ability, the skill to view conditions from long-range and to plan accordingly, and the ability to organize, administer, manage, and supervise the department as a whole and its employees. Carlson, Deppe, and McLean (1963) thought the recreation executive needed to function expertly in the areas of (1) planning, (2) organization and coordination, (3) control, (4) reporting, (5) finance and budgeting, (6) evaluation, (7) personnel management, (8) public relations, and (9) cooperation in the community.

Hjelte and Shivers (1978) suggested that the recreation manager must be "a conceptualizer, analyst, and planner while he is also supposed to organize, administer, and supervise" (p.395).

They claim that the higher one ascends in the organizational hierarchy, the more knowledge is required to decision making. The administrative recreation leader, according to Hjelte and Shivers, is a logical thinker (to aid in decision making) and needs to develop his empathetic tendencies so that he has an understanding of how subordinates will probably react to his decision. "Administrators are always concerned with methods in which leadership is exerted so that the needs of the subordinates may be satisfied while they make effective contributions to their immediate place of employment and to the entire system" (Hjelte and Shivers, 1978:396).

These few comments serve to show that administrative skills or management skills are required in all forms of organizations including recreation agencies and, therefore, are included in the recreation leadership literature. Each example, whether the content be labelled management functions, administrative techniques, or duties and responsibilities, includes management skills of the technical, human, and conceptual nature found in the recreation service area.

Leadership skills for performance. Under this heading will be reported leadership considerations as they apply to the leader when he or she is in the position of instructing others as they acquire a variety of recreational skills. In effect, what is reported are sets of "objectives" of leadership or "principles" of leadership as they apply to the recreation field.

Butler (1967) stated that tens of thousands of men and women were employed for recreation leadership on a full-time, year-round basis. "The impact of these leaders upon the public--in many cases upon children and young people primarily--makes it highly important that their objectives be consistent with our democratic way of life" (Butler, (1967:96). Butler further emphasized the place of recreation leadership in promoting the "democratic way" by referring to comments made by Sherwood Gates (1956), director of the Office of Community Services, United States Air Force, which were:

> In a democracy the central objective of all conscientious, devoted leadership--whether that leadership be in the home, the school, the church, or in the area of recreation--is to promote the fullest possible growth of the individual as a free, responsible, happy, and full-statured personality . . . . only those who are completely dedicated to the purposes and convictions and processes of democracy have a rightful, continuing place of leadership in the recreation movement of a free country (Gates, 1956).

Butler (1967) listed seven functions recreation leaders perform in attaining Gates' objectives:

1. Guide and encourage individuals to acquire new interests and to gain greater satisfaction from participation in familiar activities.

2. Help to organize recreation groups and to assure successful group operation.
3. Attempt to expand and equalize recreation opportunities.
4. Teach people to acquire new or more advanced skills.
5. Provide and maintain places in which individuals and groups may engage in activities.
6. Assume safe and healthful conditions and practices.
7. Furnish equipment and supplies essential for the enjoyment of many types of recreation (pp.96-97).

Shivers (1963) has reported how these functions have been put into action by recreation leaders at the functional (face-to-face) level.

> Employees on the functional levels are typically concerned with carrying out a schedule of various activities, including a wide variety of recreational experiences for participants or spectators. Such work will generally take the form of organizing, promoting, or directing group games, sports, or aesthetic activities; service features; minor aspects of public relations; answering questions posed by individuals coming to the recreational centers, playgrounds, or other facilities in which such personnel are employed; instructing individuals in various skills; guiding, coaching, assisting, or enabling those who participate within the agency operated program to achieve a certain measure of satisfaction and perhaps, competence in the activity of their choice (pp.96-97).

Carlson, Deppe, and McLean (1963) agreed that the face-to-face leader teaches skills, stimulates activities, guides action, and observes results. They developed eight "basic principles of leadership":

1. With the exception of intelligence, qualifications for leadership may be developed, and skills and abilities may be trained.
2. Tools for recreation leadership are rooted in the basic philosophy of worth and value of recreation in a world of increasing leisure.
3. Recreation leadership is person centred, not activity or product centred.
4. The existence of leadership implies that the leader has some status and prestige within the group he leads.

5. Recreation leadership stems from the understanding of the needs and interests of the followers.
6. Methods of leadership will vary with the personality and skill of the leader and with the situation in which he finds himself.
7. For greatest success in leadership, the best qualified person is to be selected, oriented to his responsibilities, given opportunities to grow, supervised carefully and evaluated fairly.
8. Professional leadership can and should be supplemented by carefully selected and trained volunteers (pp. 346-347).

Carlson, Deppe, and McLean were adherents to the "leaders are made, not born" condition (Principle 1), as was Tillman (1973:42) ("leaders are born, not made" is a fallacy). Such a stance is in keeping with the ideals of a democracy wherein everyone has a chance. They were aware of the results of leadership research (principle 6 above) concerning the effect the situation may have on leadership performance. Shivers (1963) may not have agreed with Principle 4, relating to prestige and status of the leadership position as he stated: "the highly successful recreational leader is one whose followers are not aware of being led", (p. 308).

Not all writers on the principles of recreation leadership agree, especially on how many there are or should be. Shivers (1973) listed twenty-five. Danford (1964) listed sixteen. Kraus and Bates (1975) listed ten. Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates (1981) listed twelve. Sessoms and Stevenson did not list, but pointed out seven "desirable leadership skills." Weiskopf (1975) listed fourteen "helpful hints" for effective games leadership, and Vannier (1977) outlined four guidelines for programme operation. Common to all lists of principles also are recommendations that leaders adopt democratic leadership styles, that leaders become accomplished in skills which will meet individual participant requirements, and that leaders display an air of sincerity in what they are doing.

Leadership skills as leadership. Not found evident in the review of non-recreation leadership literature is the notion that the acquisition of leadership skills and competencies is synonymous with leadership. However, it is found in the recreation leadership literature. Recreation writers have been enthused with "making" leaders (Carlson, Deppe, and McLean, 1963; Mitchell, Robberson, and Obley, 1977) to the point where leadership training courses have flourished. The learning of the qualities and standards of leadership (Ball, 1964; Manley, 1943; Pittman, 1954) and the learning of and participation in sports and games, dance techniques, arts and crafts skills, sailing, mountain climbing, canoeing, public speaking, and writing skills (Ball, 1964; Laporte, 1934; May, 1941; Pittman, 1954 were regarded as leadership itself. This aspect of skill acquisition and accomplishment as leadership appears to be a distinguishing characteristic of recreation leadership literature.

Summary. Under the heading of "Leadership Skills" have been reported findings in recreation leadership literature related to skills for exercise of management, leadership skills for performance, and leadership skills as leadership. It was reported that competency in the areas of technical knowledge, human relations skills, and the ability to conceptualize appear to be just as important for managerial positions in the recreation field as they are in other fields. Recreation leaders at the functional or face-to-face level of the recreation organization are guided by sets of leadership principles based on "democratic" ideals for the provision of "socially acceptable" and "healthful" activities. Such principles have existed in the recreation leadership literature over a number of years and are still being reported.

Lastly, it was reported that the attainment of recreational activity skills and concepts are regarded by writers of recreation leadership literature as leadership itself. This notion appears to set apart recreation leadership literature from other leadership literature.

Summary

This chapter consists of a review of recreation leadership literature. Using the term "recreation leadership" as a guide, this review was carried out by examining primary and secondary references in recreation and leisure journals, research journals, theses abstracts, publication indexes, textbooks on the organization of recreation and/or leisure services, texts on recreation leadership specifically, and other related publications. This review attempted to report information pertaining to recreation leadership in the manner adopted for Chapter 2, Review of Leadership Literature. Where appropriate, the various headings and sub-headings employed in Chapter 2 were employed in this chapter. Most headings and sub-headings were applicable.

In conducting this review, firstly, were examined leadership definitions found throughout the recreation literature and reported by utilizing Stogdill's (1954) system of categorization for leadership definitions. Secondly, recreation leadership was reported as (1) emphasis on the individual, (2) emphasis on the group, and (3) emphasis on the environment. The aspects of recreation leadership pertaining to training, experience, and skills were considered as adjuncts to the three areas of emphasis and reported separately as was done in Chapter 2. Thirdly, any notions or aspects of recreation leadership which were reported in the literature and which were similar to or different from that found in the Chapter 2 review. Fourthly, those aspects of non-recreation leadership literature which were not found in the review of recreation leadership literature were reported.

Writers of recreation leadership literature appear to be supporters of trait theory. One hundred and six different characteristics of recreation leaders were reported by twenty-two authors in the period 1938 to 1981. Also included in recreation literature are lists of personal qualities expected of a recreation leader written over the same period of time. The interest in leader traits in the recreation field persists even though results in attempts to develop leadership theories based solely on traits were disappointing in other fields.

Writers of recreation leadership also regard leadership as interpersonal behaviours. Employing proper communications is regarded as one of the important interpersonal behaviours, and many authors regard behaving in a "democratic" manner preferable to behaving in an "authoritarian" or "laissez'faire" manner. Leadership "style" in recreation leadership literature is somewhat indistinguishable from leadership "behaviour". Recommendations for the adoption of "democratic" styles rather than "authoritarian" or "laissez-faire" styles appear throughout recreation leadership literature. Much evidence from behavioural research in other fields is used to support the democratic approach to behaviour and style found in the recreation literature. Such recommendations still exist (Sessoms and Stevenson, 1981).

Upon reviewing recreation leadership literature regarding "emphasis on the group" under the sub-headings of "group processes," "group interaction" and "the organization of a group," it was found that the results of the study of group dynamics have been most influential on recreation leadership writers. Recreation authors realize that the recreation leader works with a variety of groups and knowledge about how groups operate is important to the leader's operation. Knowledge of the interactions that take place between leaders and group members, between the group members themselves, and between the group and the environment can assist recreation leaders to help the group achieve its goals. Democratic style and a thorough understanding of group-building and task-related functions are recommended to be combined for an effective and appropriate approach to the leadership of recreation groups. Although no direct references to the organization as a group were found in the recreation leadership literature, frequent reference was made to renowned human relations theories. These references were found under a variety of different categories of leadership theories employed by recreation authors.

The relationship of the recreation leadership to the various constraints of the environment has not gone unnoticed by writers of recreation leadership. As situation theories of leadership developed, their influence was felt in the recreation literature, causing some writers to acknowledge the situation in which leaders performed as well as their personal characteristics. Although some authors utilized "situation" as a heading for their commentaries, they discussed only the interactions between leaders and members of their groups. As contingency theories of leadership began to take up the greater part of the interests of leadership theorists in other fields, recreation authors reported their findings. A few recreation authors took time to consider the implications of these newer theories for the recreation field. Others just reported the theories and findings as part of an up-to-date review of leadership investigations, presumably with the understanding that the findings could apply to any situation, including the field of recreation and leisure services.

The mention of leadership experience is not as frequent as the mention of leadership training in the recreation leadership literature. Often the two terms are linked in context. Both training and experience have been of some concern to writers of recreation leadership literature for some time and continue to remain so. As times change, so does the literature in an apparent attempt to keep relevant and up-to-date and the various authors reportenew standards for training and experience for recreation leadership as they occur.

Competency in the areas of technical knowledge, human relations skills and the ability to conceptualize appear to be just as important for managerial positions in the recreation field as they are in other fields. Recreation leaders at the functional level are guided by sets of principles of leadership based on democratic ideals. These principles have appeared in the recreation literature over a number of years and their discussion continues. The learning and the attainment of activity skills and the understanding of recreation concepts are regarded by many recreation writers as leadership itself. This notion of leadership as the acquisition of skills and knowledge distinguishes recreation leadership literature from other leadership literature.

Chapter 4

METHODS AND PROCEDURES FOR EXAMINING EMPIRICAL PERCEPTUAL DESCRIPTIONS OF RECREATION LEADERSHIP

The overall problem with which this study is concerned is: What is recreation leadership? This study considered the overall problem to consist of two parts. The first part is: What is recreation leadership as described by recreation leadership literature? The second part is: What is recreation leadership according to empirical perceptual description?

The first part of the overall problem is considered by this study to consist of two sub-problems.

Sub-problem 1 addresses the question: What is recreation leadership as described by recreation leadership literature?

Sub-problem 2 addresses the question: How do the descriptions of leadership by writers of recreation leadership literature and by writers of non-recreation leadership literature compare?

Chapter 2 dealt with descriptions of leadership found in the review of non-recreation leadership literature. Chapter 3 dealt with descriptions of recreation leadership found in the review of recreation leadership literature in response to sub-problem 1. Included in Chapter 3 was an attempt to utilize the same method employed in the review of non-recreation leadership literature to ascertain descriptions of the term recreation leadership in response to sub-problem 2. The method employed consisted of reviewing a variety of publications from the body of recreation literature to elucidate descriptions of recreation leadership according to definition and to theoretical commentary (See page89 , Chapter 3).

The second part of the overall problem is considered by this study to consist of eleven sub-problems, which are listed below. These following sub-problems were developed to examine perceptual descriptions of recreation leadership found in the public sector of the recreation field.

Sub-problem 3. What is the relationship between demographic characteristics of recreation leaders and descriptions of leadership by those leaders and by their programme participants?

Sub-problem 4. How do recreation leaders describe leadership?

Sub-problem 4(a). What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by experienced recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by less experienced recreation leaders?

Sub-problem 4(b). What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by qualified recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by less qualified leaders?

Sub-problem 5. How do participants in recreation programmes conducted by recreation leaders describe leadership?

Sub-problem 5(a). What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by individual recreation programme participant groups?

Sub-problem 6. What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in recreation programmes conducted by those recreation leaders?

Sub-problem 6(a). What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by experienced recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in recreation programmes conducted by those experienced recreation leaders?

Sub-problem 6(b). What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by less experienced recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in recreation programmes conducted by those less experienced recreation leaders?

Sub-problem 6(c). What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by qualified recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in recreation programmes conducted by those qualified recreation leaders?

Sub-problem 6(d). What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by less qualified recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in recreation programmes conducted by those less qualified recreation leaders.

Sub-problem 7. To conclude the analysis of data pertaining to the review of non-recreation leadership literature, the review of recreation leadership literature, and the results of the empirical aspect of this study, an extra sub-problem, problem 7, is devised. Sub-problem 7 deals with the comparison between the findings of the reviews of literature and the findings of the empirical investigations. It addresses the question: How do the findings of the review of non-recreation leadership literature, the review of recreation leadership literature, and the empirical investigation of this study compare? Chapter 6 is devoted entirely to the results of addressing sub-problem 7.

Subject selection

Fifteen municipal recreation programmes were selected for study, with the aid of the municipal recreation superintendent, the municipal recreation director and/or the municipal recreation programme coordinator from eight communities in the Province of Alberta, Canada.

Telephone calls were made to the senior recreation officials in nine communities in order to gain permission to have available recreation programmes included in the study. Permission was granted in each case and the recreation superintendent, the recreation director or the recreation programme coordinator agreed to render assistance.

Nineteen municipal recreation programmes from the nine communities were visited to collect demographic data and descriptions of recreation leadership. The recreation programmes were selected according to the following criteria.

a) A variety of types of programmes was to be included for study.

b) The programmes were to be operated by municipal authorities including city, town, country, and municipal districts.

c) Each programme was to be funded and operated by a recreation or parks and recreation department.

d) The chief executive of each recreation or recreation and parks department was to be willing to participate in the study.

e) At least one recreation programme was to be in operation at the time data were to be collected.

f) The leader of each recreation programme was willing to participate in the study.

g) The participants in each recreation programme were willing to participate in the study.

h) The enrollment in each recreation programme selected consisted of at least ten participants.

i) Each recreation programme selected was to have proceeded through at least half of the sessions scheduled for the entire programme's duration.

Of the 19 programmes visited out of nine communities, 15 programmes from eight communities adhered to the selection criteria. These 15 programmes were finally selected.

Of the 19 programmes, two had insufficient numbers of participants (six or less). One of these two programmes not only had insufficient participants, but those who did attend were either too young (nine years of age or less) or had limited language skills to answer the questionnaires. A third programme was not utilized as the programme leader, at the time the prearranged visit occurred, did not believe the programme was funded and operated by the local recreation authority, and therefore did not wish to participate. A fourth programme was visited twice. Each time, an insufficient number of participants was in attendance.

Table 6 denotes the 15 programmes from the eight communities selected for study. Six of the programmes had enrollments of greater

Table 6

Details of Fifteen Municipal Recreation Programmes Selected for Study

Programme Number	Name of Programme	Duration of Programme (Weeks)	Duration of Each Session (Hours)	Number of Sessions in Programme	Number of Sessions Completed	Enrollment	
						Number Enrolled	Number Tested
1	Macrame	5	2	5	4	10	10
2	Bridge	8	2	8	5	13	10
3	Ladies' Keep Fit	8	3	3	7	15	10
4	Social Dancing	4	2	4	2	30	10
5	Adult Swimming	5	1	10	10	15	10
6	Painting	6	3	6	6	10	8
7	Jive and Disco Dance	6	2	6	6	10	10
8	Women's Physical Culture	6	2	6	4	40	10
9	Community Band	32	3	32	32	10	10
10	Canoe Construction	3	5	10	10	10	9
11	Art	10	2	3	3	10	10
12	Swim Instruction	10	1	10	8	10	10
13	Golf	4	1	4	4	10	10
14	Life Saving	5	2	10	9	10	9
15	Dog Obedience	8	2	7	6	15	10

than ten. Where more than ten participants volunteered to participate in the study, the number was reduced by random selection. In one case, three of 13 participants failed to respond to all items in the questionnaires used. The completed questionnaires of the other ten participants were included in the study. Three other programmes selected for study had less than ten participants who completed questionnaires. Although the enrollments for these programmes were ten, some participants were absent at the time the questionnaires were administered. Absenteeism occurred in only three of the programmes studied. These were the oil painting class which had only eight participants present, the canoe construction course which had nine participants present, and the life saving class which also had nine participants present. These enrollment variations would not affect the results obtained when using the Leader's Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII, according to Halpin (1957).

The communities selected varied from the city of Edmonton to the municipal district of Sturgeon. Three programmes were selected from one county, three programmes were selected from a county-wide regional recreation system, three programmes were selected from a municipal district, three programmes were operated in cities, and three programmes were operated by town recreation authorities.

The names of the 15 recreation programmes correspond to the names given to them by their leaders. "Ladies' Keep Fit," however, was also known as "Spring Tune-Up." The durations of the programmes varied from three weeks to 32 weeks, with individual sessions varying from one hour to five hours in length. All programmes had been in operation for at least half of their scheduled sessions at the time data were gathered.

Instruments Used in the Study

Three instruments were utilized to gather data for the empirical aspect of the study. They included a Leader's Demographic Questionnaire, a Participant's Demographic Questionnaire, and the Leader's Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII.

Leader's Demographic Questionnaire. The Leader's Demographic Questionnaire (Appendix A) was designed specifically to gather data about each of the selected municipal recreation leaders and about each of the municipal recreation programmes they led. Items included the name of the recreation or recreation and parks department; the name and title of the department head and programme officials; the name, duration, and other details about the programme to ensure each programme met the selection criteria. Other items dealt with the sex, age,range, experience, academic qualifications and specific programme training of the recreation leader. The front page of the questionnaire explained the purpose of the study, the purpose of the questionnaire, and outlined the instructions for completing the questionnaire.

Participant's Demographic Questionnaire. The Participant's Demographic Questionnaire (Appendix B) included items pertaining to the sex, age in years, and recreation programme participation experience of each participant. The first page included the purpose of the study, the purpose of the questionnaire, and the instructions needed to complete the questionnaire.

Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII. The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII (LBDQ - Form XII) was utilized to gain perceptual descriptions of the 15 recreation programme leaders' behaviour. The leaders completed the questionnaire to describe their own leadership behaviour and the participants used identical questionnaires to describe the behaviours of their own respective leaders. Permission was granted from the publishers of the LBDQ - Form XII (Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, Ohio State University) to reproduce copies of the printed questionnaire for use in this study. Although the LBDQ - Form XII was subject to revision (Stogdill, 1963:2), no modifications were evident since Stogdill published the Manual for the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII in 1963. Instructions for completing the LBDQ - Form XII were printed on the first page. A copy of the LBDQ - Form XII is found in Appendix C.

Development of the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII

Shartle (1950) organized the Ohio State Leadership Studies in 1945 on the premise that, at the time, no "satisfactory" theory of leadership existed. As the personality trait approach to leadership did not appear to be producing fruitful results, an attempt to study the behaviours of leaders was instigated. The thrust was to describe the individual's behaviour as he acted as a leader of a group or an organization. Hemphill's (1949) work at The University of Maryland reinforced this new approach to the study of leadership. Hemphill joined the staff of the Ohio State Leader Studies and he and his associates developed a list of 1,800 items describing different aspects of leader behaviour. Staff members sorted the items into nine hypothetical sub-scales with most items belonging to several sub-scales. Eventually, the sorters were agreed on 150 items which could be assigned discretely to sub-scales. These items were to form the first LBDQ (Stogdill, 1974). A variety of factor analytic studies of item correlations produced two factors which Hemphill labelled "Consideration" and "Initiation of Structure in Interaction." It was found by further factor analysis studies that the items and sub-scales measured two different types of behaviour and not nine as originally hypothesized. Halpin and Winer (1957) conducted the factor analysis studies and developed a 40-item questionnaire to measure the two sub-scales. Hemphill, Seigel, and Westie, in 1951, also developed an "Ideal LBDQ" to measure expectations about what a leader ought to do (Stogdill, 1974).

The LBDQ has been used for studies with United States Airforce personnel (Christner and Hemphill, 1955; Halpin, 1954). Holloman (1967) used the LBDQ to study military and civilian personnel in a large air-force base. Newport, on 1962, studied cadet flight leaders and others (Fleishman, Hood, and Rush) studied leadership in military situations using the LBDQ (Stogdill, 1974).

The LBDQ has been used extensively in educational settings. Hemphill (1955), Sharpe (1956), Hilld (1963), Brown (1967), Greenfield (1968) and several others employed the LBDQ to gain self descriptions and descriptions by others of the behaviour of principals, teachers, college deans, presidents of departments, student leaders, and American and Indian graduate students.

Halpin (1963) reported that:

> . . . In several studies where the agreement among respondents in describing their respective leaders has been checked by a 'between-group versus within-group' analysis of variance, the F ratios all have been found significant at the .01 level. Followers tend to agree in describing the same leaders, and the descriptions of different leaders differ significantly (p. 1).

The LBDQ has also been used to measure leader behaviour in the industrial setting (Anderson, 1964; Fleishman, 1957; Fleishman and Simmons, 1970; House, Filley and Kerr, 1970; Korman, 1966; Meuwese, 1965; Skinner, 1969).

In spite of the apparent success of the original LBDQ in limiting the description of leadership to the two factors "Consideration" and "Initiation of Structure", some concern was expressed that the two factors were not sufficient to describe all the complexities of leader behaviour (Stogdill, 1974: 143). Stogdill (1959) developed a new theory of role differentiation and group achievement. With support from a "large body of research data" (Stogdill, 1963:2), the theory suggested that several variables were operating in the differentiation of roles in social groups. From the new theory and results of empirical research, the following factors are suggested: tolerance of uncertainty; persuasiveness; tolerance of member freedom of action; predictive accuracy; integration of the group; reconciliation of conflicting demands; representation of group interests; role assumption; production emphasis; and orientation toward superiors. Items were developed for the new sub-scales and revised after a series of item analyses, testing, reanalyzing and retesting. Several researchers (Day, 1961; Stogdill, 1963; Stogdill, Goode and Day, 1962, 1963a, 1963b) tested and revised the questionnaire. LBDQ - Form XII represented the fourth revision and included the sub-scales Consideration and Initiation of Structure. Stogdill suggested that LBDQ - Form XII was still subject to revision (1963:2).

Reliability of the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII

Stogdill (1963:8) determined the reliability of the sub-scales of LBDQ - Form XII by using a modification of the Kuder-Richardson formula. Each item was correlated with the remainder of the items in its sub-scale, rather than with the sub-scale score which included the item. Stogdill claimed that such a procedure yielded a conservative estimate of sub-scale reliability. Included in Appendix D is Stogdill's table on reliability coefficients over nine different groups. The median reliability coefficients for sub-scales were .70 or better, with the exception of the sub-scale Superior Orientation, whose median reliability coefficient over five groups was .64. These results suggest that the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales are reliable. Schriesheim (1978:17) supports such a conclusion suggesting that reliability respecting internal consistency and item homogeneity seems to be acceptable and well established.

Validity of the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII

"Validity represents the degree to which a scale measures what it purports to measure" (Stogdill, 1974:144). Stogdill (1969), in cooperation with a playwright, developed a scenario for each of six sub-scales (Consideration, Initiation of Structure, Representation, Tolerance of Freedom, Production Emphasis, and Superior Orientation) to test the validity of several sub-scales of the LBDQ - Form XII. The items in a sub-scale were used as the basis for developing the scenario for that pattern of behaviour.

> Experienced actors played the roles of supervisor and workers. Each role was played by two different actors, and each actor played two different roles. Motion pictures were made of the role performances. Observers used LBDQ - Form XII to describe the supervisor's behaviour. No significant differences were found between two different actors playing the same role. Still, the actors playing a given role were described significantly higher than in other roles (Stogdill, 1974:144).

Stogdill concluded from this test that the sub-scales actually measured what they purported to measure, since each role was designed to portray the behaviours represented by the items in its respective sub-scale and the same items were utilized by the observers to describe the enactment of the role.

Criticism of the Leader Behaviour Descriptions Questionnaire - Form XII

Schriesheim and Kerr (1977:16) attempted to evaluate "the most commonly used leadership measures." Of the more than ten dozen leadership scales uncovered by their review, Schriesheim and Kerr (1977:19) noted that very few of the scales were used more than once and "only three percent or so have been employed more than a few times." These commonly used scales were: 1) the Ohio State University leadership scales, 2) the LPC instrument utilized by Fiedler's Contingency Theory, and 3) the University of Michigan four-factor leadership scales. Schriesheim and Kerr employed the criteria of: i) content validity, ii) internal consistency (reliability), iii) score stability (test-retest reliability), iv) construct validity, and v) minimal contamination by extraneous response determinants (agreement response tendencies, social desirability, leniency, and halo), as suggested by the American Psychological Association (1974) to judge the adequacy of the scales (see also pp. 63ff).

As criticisms of the LPC and the Michigan scales were reported in Chapter 2, only the Ohio State scales, and specifically the LBDQ - Form XII will be discussed here. Table 7 represents a summary of the psychometric properties of the more common leadership scales according to the American Psychological Association evaluation criteria (Table 7). This table is reproduced from Schriesheim and Kerr (1977). From the table, it will be seen that, of all the scales (LOQ; SDBQ; LBDQ - Form XII from Ohio State University; LPC from Fiedler's Contingency Theory; and the Michigan 4-Factor from the University of Michigan), the LBDQ - Form XII has the most acceptable properties relating to validity and reliability.

According to Schriesheim and Kerr (1977), it was generally assumed that the LBDQ - Form XII, as were the LOQ, SDBQ and the LDBQ, was valid. Based on their 1974 review of leadership measurement and "recent research," Schriesheim and Kerr (1977) concluded that this assumption was refuted.

Construct validity. Schriesheim and Kerr (1974) reviewed Stogdill's (1969) experiment with the scenario to establish the validity of the LBDQ - Form XII, and noted that high intercorrelations were usually obtained between the sub-scales Structure and Production Emphasis, thus indicating a lack of discriminant validity. A more recent study by Schriesheim (1976) concluded that sub-scales Consideration and Structure have median intercorrelations around .55, to support the notion of a lack of discriminant validity. Yunker and Hunt (1977), found that the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales had convergent

Table 7

Summary of Leadership Instrument Properties

Property	LOQ	SBDQ	LBDQ	LBDQ - FORM XII	LPC	MICHIGAN 4-FACTOR
Construct Validity	U*	U*	U*	U	U	U
Content Validity	U	U	M	M	U	M
Concurrent Validity	M	A	A	A	U	M*
Predictive Validity	M*	M*	N	M*	U	M*
Homogeneity Reliability	A	A	A	A	A	A
Test-Retest Reliability	A	A	N	M*	U	U
Equal Response Intervals	U	U	U	U	U*	U*
Absence of Social Desirability and Leniency	N	N	N	N	N	N
Absence of Halo	A	A	U	U	N	U
Number of Reflected Items	U	U	U	U	A	U

Legend: A = Acceptable; M = Marginally acceptable; N = Not known; U = Unacceptable
* = Data are insufficient to draw more than a tentative conclusion.

Reproduced with permission from Hunt and Larson, 1977:33.

validity, but Consideration and Structure had a substantial amount of common variance, thus contributing to a lack of discriminant validity. Schriesheim and Kerr concluded that the LBDQ - Form XII lacked construct validity.

Content validity. Schriesheim and Kerr (1977) claimed that evidence from their review and analysis of leadership measurement scales and other evidence indicated that all four scales from Ohio State suffered from the content validity, although fewer extraneous items appeared in the LBDQ and the LBDQ - Form XII.

Concurrent and predictive validity. In 1974, a study by Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy and Stogdill, and a study by Schriesheim and Kerr, also in 1974, claimed the LBDQ - Form XII had demonstrated concurrent validity (Schriesheim, 1978; Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977).

From the point of view of predictive validity, recent studies by Greene and Schriesheim (1978) and reviews of the literature regarding predictive validity by Downey, Sheridan, and Slocum in 1976, and by Kerr and Schriesheim in 1974 (Schriesheim, 1978), the casual direction of Consideration and Structure was reversed. "While in some instances Consideration and Structure cause subordinate satisfaction and performance, in other instances they are the result of these factors" (Schriesheim, 1978:16). Also, other "laboratory studies support these findings and suggest that Consideration and Structure may have reciprocal causal relationships with important organizational criteria" (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1974:21; Schriesheim, 1978:17). The overall suggestion was that the predictive validity of the Ohio State scales was not clearly demonstrated (Schriesheim, 1978).

Response properties. Schriesheim and Kerr (1978) suggested additional problems which might be common to all Ohio State leadership measurement scales. These were:

> 1. The scales generate skewed item response distributions, due to possible contamination by social desirability or leniency. This would bleach out descriptive details as the respondents would describe liked or disliked details as the respondents in uniformly favourable or unfavourable ways (leniency or social desirability).
>
> 2. The scales contain an inadequate number of reflected (reverse-scored) items, leading to a possible inability to control for agreement response tendencies (predisposition to respond using only one side of the response scale, regardless of item content).
>
> 3. The scales have response categories of unequal intervals, leading to possible erroneous conclusions when parametric statistical techniques are applied to them (p. 18).

Schriesheim suggested that it has been shown that leniency may exert a strong effect on the LBDQ - Form XII (Schriesheim and DeNisi, 1978c; Schriesheim and Kinicki, 1978a, 1978b), although data were lacking in order to draw any conclusions about social desirability.

Although some studies have suggested that LBDQ - Form XII responses might only reflect respondents' "implicit theories" (stereotyping) about leader behaviour and not their perceptions (Rush, Thomas and Lord, 1977), Schriesheim reported in 1978 that his field and laboratory studies with DeNisi (Schriesheim and DeNisi, 1978a) had shown that when respondents had little information about the leader they were describing, then LBDQ - Form XII responses and response validity may have been affected by implicit theories. They concluded that the effects of stereotypes and implicit theories were probably minimal, as the lack of knowledge about the group's leader by the members of the group was "an unusual occurrence in most field studies" (Schriesheim, 1978:19).

Utilizing the LBDQ - Form XII in this study, in light of the above comments, is recognized as a limitation of the study.

Administering the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII

> The LBDQ is usually employed by followers to describe the behaviours of their leader or supervisor. However, the questionnaire can be used by peers or superiors to describe a given leader whom they know well enough to describe accurately. With proper change in instructions, the questionnaire can also be used by a leader to describe his own behaviour (Stogdill, 1963:12).

The LBDQ - Form XII was administered to the 15 recreation leaders and their programme participants. Appendix D consists of the Manual for the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII -- An Experimental Revision by Ralph M. Stogdill (1963) and was strictly adhered to during the collection of data for this study.

The manual describes the development of the questionnaire, includes the scoring procedure, discusses the reliability of the sub-scales and advises how to administer the questionnaire properly.

Concerning how many describers are required to provide a satisfactory index score of the leader's behaviour, Stogdill (1963:12) wrote:

> Halpin (7) suggests that a minimum of four respondents per leader is desirable, and additional respondents beyond ten do not increase significantly the stability of the index scores. Six or seven respondents per leader would be a good standard.

The absenteeism which occurred when collecting data by utilizing the LBDQ - Form XII for this study, therefore, would have no significant effect on the index scoring. As indicated earlier, the numbers involved were well within the range suggested by Halpin.

Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII Item Analysis

LBDQ - Form XII consists of 100 questions about leader behaviour which, according to Stogdill (1974), describe 12 patterns of behaviour (sub-scales):

> Theoretical work (Stogdill, 1959) concerning factors involved in differentiation of group roles suggested that several identifiable patterns of behaviour operate to enable a member to achieve leadership status. The results of research and experimentation tend to support the theoretical formulation. Thus, both theory and research suggest that the sub-scales of LBDQ - Form XII are patterns of behaviour which are involved in leadership, though not equally important in all situations (p. 143).

As a check on the consistency of the 100 items to relate to their respective sub-scales in the recreation setting, the 12 variance components (derived from the LBDQ - Form XII responses of the 146 participants and utilizing The University of Alberta's DERS programme FACT 20, revised 1980) were rotated to an ideal target matrix of the LBDQ - Form XII to determine goodness of fit. The target consisted of 100 rows by 12 columns using 1's to identify the items which belonged to the sub-scale and 0's otherwise. To complete the factor match, DERS programme FACT 07 was utilized.

Table 8 displays the results of the check on the consistency of the relationships between the responses by the 146 programme participants of this study to the 100 items of the LBDQ - Form XII and their respective sub-scales. The twelve variance components were rotated to an ideal matrix of the LBDQ - Form XII item-to-subscale match. In parenthese in Table 8 are the relationships between the 146 programme participants' item responses and their respective sub-scale loadings on the ideal LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale matrix.

In all cases, a relationship was found to exist between this study's item responses and the original placement of the items in the

Table 8

Relationships Between 146 Participants' Item Responses and Original LBDQ - Form XII Item Placement Per Sub-Scale

Sub-Scale		ITEM NUMBERS									
Representation	Stogdill	1	11	21	31	41					
	Current Study	1	11	21	31	41					
	(Relationship)	(.36)	(.27)	(.46)	(.48)	(.35)					
Reconciliation	Stogdill						51	61	71	81	91
	Current Study						51	61	71	81	91
	(Relationship)						(.00)	(.38)	(.43)	(.36)	(.18)
Tolerance of Uncertainty	Stogdill	2	12	22	32	42	52	62	72	82	92
	Current Study	2	12	22	32	42	52	62	72	82	92
	(Relationship)	(.15)	(.23)	(.56)	(.34)	(.17)	(.29)	(.25)	(-.01)	(.25)	(.40)
Persuasion	Stogdill	3	13	23	33	43	53	63	73	83	93
	Current Study	3	13	23	33	43	53	63	73	83	93
	(Relationship)	(.26)	(.13)	(.37)	(.53)	(.37)	(-.34)	(.46)	(.65)	(.39)	(.44)
Structure	Stogdill	4	14	24	34	44	54	64	74	84	94
	Current Study	4	14	24	34	44	54	64	74	84	94
	(Relationship)	(.48)	(.53)	(.21)	(.48)	(.61)	(.41)	(.54)	(.45)	(.21)	(.42)
Tolerance of Freedom	Stogdill	5	15	25	35	45	55	65	75	85	95
	Current Study	5	15	25	35	45	55	65	75	85	95
	(Relationship)	(.54)	(.40)	(.47)	(.65)	(.47)	(.37)	(-.37)	(.42)	(.44)	(.63)

Table 8

(Continued)

Sub-Scale		ITEM NUMBERS									
Role Assumption	Stogdill	6	16	26	36	46	56	66	76	86	96
	Current Study	6	16	26	36	46	56	66	76	86	96
	(Relationship)	(.53)	(.31)	(.27)	(.40)	(.48)	(.48)	(.41)	(.09)	(.18)	(-.11)
Consideration	Stogdill	7	17	27	37	47	57	67	77	87	97
	Current Study	7	17	27	37	47	57	67	77	87	97
	(Relationship)	(.24)	(-.01)	(.21)	(-.00)	(.22)	(.37)	(.39)	(.17)	(-.06)	(-.09)
Production Emphasis	Stogdill	8	18	28	38	48	58	68	78	88	98
	Current Study	8	18	28	38	48	58	68	78	88	98
	Relationship	(.47)	(.37)	(.37)	(.35)	(.65)	(.70)	(-.33)	(.39)	(.47)	(.47)
Predictive Accuracy	Stogdill	9		29		49	59			89	
	Current Study	9		29		49	59			89	
	(Relationship)	(.08)		(.49)		(.47)	(.49)			(.39)	
Integration	Stogdill		19		39			69	79		99
	Current Study		19		39			69	79		99
	(Relationship)		(.54)		(.24)			(.52)	(.20)		(.36)
Superior Orientation	Stogdill	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
	Current Study	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
	(Relationship)	(.29)	(.52)	(.46)	(.32)	(.12)	(.25)	(.55)	(.52)	(.35)	(.50)

LBDQ - Form XII (as per the ideal matrix). It will be seen, however, that some relationships are low (.35 or less) and some relationships are negative. For example, the relationships between this study's item responses and the ideal matrix for items 53, 65, and 68 were -.34, -.37, and -.33 respectively. Each of these items were phrased originally in the negative sense and were to be reverse-scored (see Appendix D). These observations suggest that, in this case, the original items affected should be reworded or changed, tested again in the recreation setting and retained or deleted. There may be a problem with the way respondents react to these negatively phrased items. Twenty-eight of the 100 items had higher relationships with other sub-scales than those suggested by Stogdill (1963). Table 9 indicates which items those were and with which sub-scales were the relationships. Of those 28 items, 17 of them had higher relationships with other sub-scales, but those relationships were less than .35. Six of the higher item relationships were negative relationships. Three of these were less than .35. Only three of the higher items related negatively to their new sub-scales. Consideration would have to be given to dropping these particular items from further inclusion in the LBDQ - Form XII, or else having them reworded and retested. These items were numbered 12 (He becomes anxious when he cannot find out what is coming next -- new sub-scale = Integration), 16 (He fails to take necessary action -- new sub-scale = Integration), and 7 (He is friendly and approachable -- new sub-scale = Reconciliation). With the exception of item 7, the other items were phrased negatively as was item 81 (relationship of -.33 with new sub-scale Tolerance of Freedom). Again, the negatively phrased items may be responsible for

Table 9

Probable Relocation of LBDQ - Form XII Items with More Appropriate Sub-Scale

	BETTER RELATIONSHIPS			
SUB-SCALE	Item No.		New Sub-Scale	COMMENTS
Representation	Study Item (Relationship)	11 (.28)	Persuasion	Too low to be useful
Reconciliation	Study Item (Relationship)	51 (.42)	Tolerance of Freedom	
	Study Item (Relationship)	71 (.53)	Role Assumption	
	Study Item (Relationship)	81 (.53)	Persuasion	
	Study Item (Relationship)	91 (.31)	Role Assumption	Too low to be useful
Tolerance of Uncertainty	Study Item (Relationship)	2 (.37)	Tolerance of Freedom	
	Study Item (Relationship)	12 (-.43)	Integration	Negative direction
	Study Item (Relationship)	32 (.42)	Tolerance of Freedom	
	Study Item (Relationship)	42 (-.30)	Integration	Too low to be useful

Table 9

(Continued)

	BETTER RELATIONSHIPS			
SUB-SCALE	Item No.		New Sub-Scale	COMMENTS
Tolerance of Uncertainty (continued)	Study Item (Relationship)	52 (.37)	Tolerance of Freedom	
	Study Item (Relationship)	62 (-.33)	Tolerance of Freedom	Too low to be useful
	Study Item (Relationship)	72 (.34)	Role Assumption	Too low to be useful
	Study Item (Relationship)	82 (.33)	Integration	Too low to be useful
Persuasion	Study Item (Relationship)	3 (.33)	Production Emphasis	Too low to be useful
	Study Item (Relationship)	13 (.39)	Integration	
	Study Item (Relationship)	53 (.32)	Representation	Too low to be useful
Structure	Study Item (Relationship)	24 (.39)	Tolerance of Uncertainty	
	Study Item (Relationship)	84 (.41)	Persuasion	

Table 9

(Continued)

SUB-SCALE	BETTER RELATIONSHIPS		COMMENTS
	Item No.	New Sub-Scale	
Tolerance of Freedom	NIL		
Role Assumption	Study Item 16 (Relationship) (-.36)	Integration	Negative direction
	Study Item 26 (Relationship) (.43)	Consideration	
	Study Item 56 (Relationship) (.51)	Reconciliation	
	Study Item 76 (Relationship) (.31)	Tolerance of Freedom	Too low to be useful
	Study Item 86 (Relationship) (.53)	Superior Orientation	
	Study Item 96 (Relationship) (.48)	Structure	
Consideration	Study Item 7 (Relationship) (-.35)	Reconciliation	Negative direction
	Study Item 17 (Relationship) (.35)	Tolerance of Uncertainty	

Table 9

(Continued)

SUB-SCALE	BETTER RELATIONSHIPS		COMMENTS
	Item No.	New Sub-Scale	
Consideration (continued)	Study Item 27 (Relationship) (.34)	Persuasion	Too low to be useful
	Study Item 37 (Relationship) (.33)	Integration	Too low to be useful
	Study Item 47 (Relationship) (.34)	Integration	Too low to be useful
	Study Item 67 (Relationship) (.43)	Persuasion	
	Study Item 77 (Relationship) (.50)	Tolerance of Freedom	
	Study Item 87 (Relationship) (-.33)	Tolerance of Freedom	Too low to be useful
	Study Item 97 (Relationship) (.33)	Role Assumption	Too low to be useful
Production Emphasis	Study Item 38 (Relationship) (.49)	Structure	
Predictive Accuracy	Study Item 9 (Relationship) (.44)	Integration	

Table 9

(Continued)

SUB-SCALE	BETTER RELATIONSHIPS		
	Item No.	New Sub-Scale	COMMENTS
Integration	Study Item (Relationship) 39 (.34)	Superior Orientation	Too low to be useful
	Study Item (Relationship) 79 (.29)	Predictive Accuracy	Too low to be useful
Superior Orientation	Study Item (Relationship) 10 (.43)	Integration	
	Study Item (Relationship) 40 (.38)	Integration	
	Study Item (Relationship) 50 (.35)	Role Assumption	
	Study Item (Relationship) 60 (.32)	Representation	Too low to be useful

these results. Of the 100 items, 61 were positively and highly related to those sub-scales to which they were supposed to relate. Sub-scales "Tolerance of Uncertainty", "Role Assumption", and "Consideration" suffered the most problems in terms of having sufficiently high enough item relationships. Tolerance of Uncertainty and Consideration only had two items each and Role Assumption only had five of the ten expected. The phrasing of items negatively may well be the problem associated with these results. Forty percent of the items pertaining to the sub-scale Tolerance of Uncertainty were phrased negatively and seventy percent of the items for the sub-scale Role Assumption were phrased negatively. Only two out of the ten items included in the sub-scale Consideration, however, were phrased negatively. The problem concerning the sub-scale Consideration may be due to the other reasons, as will be shown in the next section.

The results of this item-to-factor match suggest that the LBDQ - Form XII, with only slight modification, and retesting, is quite suitable as an instrument for measuring the behaviour of recreation leaders at the face-to-face group level.

Tucker Coefficients

Table 10 is a matrix of Tucker coefficients for the ideal target matrix and factor loading for the 146 participants' item responses to the LBDQ - Form XII after rotation. Tucker (1951:4) developed a "Coefficient of congruence" to study the agreement between factors in two studies. The coefficient of congruence is similar in form to the product-moment coefficient. It is, however, certainly not a correla-

Table 10

Matrix of Tucker Coefficients for Target Matrix and Rotated Factor Loadings

LBDQ - Form XII	LBDQ - Form XII SUB-SCALES											
Sub-Scales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	0.5136	-0.0333	0.1037	0.1021	0.1134	0.0956	-0.0250	-0.0039	0.1693	0.0697	0.0874	0.2126
2	-0.0331	0.3362	0.0396	0.1304	-0.0298	0.0233	0.1926	0.0744	0.0402	-0.0487	-0.0767	0.0505
3	0.0687	0.0264	0.4931	0.0138	0.1089	0.1152	0.0469	0.1300	0.0859	0.0316	0.0308	0.0976
4	0.0897	0.1152	0.0183	0.4619	0.2209	0.1268	-0.0273	0.2551	0.1197	0.1032	0.0753	0.1598
5	0.1084	-0.0287	0.1571	0.2400	0.5659	0.0642	-0.0535	0.1391	0.2513	0.2066	0.1267	0.1603
6	0.0883	0.0216	0.1605	0.1331	0.0620	0.5402	-0.0258	0.1764	-0.0274	0.0477	0.0553	0.0949
7	-0.0198	0.1529	0.0559	-0.0245	-0.0442	-0.0220	0.4782	0.0984	0.0530	0.0004	0.0149	0.0644
8	-0.0027	0.0523	0.1373	0.2031	0.1019	0.1337	0.0871	0.2564	0.0094	0.1317	0.1130	0.0687
9	0.1394	0.0333	0.1067	0.1120	0.2165	-0.0244	0.0553	0.0111	0.5918	0.1192	0.0891	0.0334
10	0.0757	-0.0531	0.0518	0.1274	0.2347	0.0560	0.0006	0.2042	0.1572	0.0004	0.1973	0.1509
11	0.1013	-0.0893	0.0538	0.0992	0.1536	0.0694	0.0219	0.1871	0.1255	0.2106	0.4103	0.2194
12	0.1692	0.0404	0.1172	0.1446	0.1334	0.0818	0.0649	0.0781	0.0322	0.1106	0.1506	0.5877

* Sub-scale Code: 1-Representation; 2-Demand Reconciliation; 3-Tolerance of Uncertainty; 4-Persuasion; 5-Initiating Structure; 6-Tolerance of Freedom; 7-Role Assumption; 8-Consideration; 9-Production Emphasis; 10-Predictive Accuracy; 11-Integration; 12-Superior Orientation.

tion (Harman, 1976:343). Tucker's coefficient of congruence can range from +1 for perfect agreement (or -1 for perfect inverse agreement) to zero for no agreement at all. The coefficients of congruence confirm the relationships among factors (e.g., this study's 146 participants' item response factor loadings on the twelve LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales and the ideal target matrix). Tucker recommended that each factor for one study be compared with all the factors of the other study, and be paired with the one with which it has the highest coefficient of congruence. "A given factor of one study may be said to be 'matched with' or 'congruent to' that factor of the other study with which it has the highest coefficient of congruence" (Harman, 1976:347). From Table 13 it will be seen that a fairly high level of congruency prevails across all LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales in this study, except for the eighth sub-scale, Consideration. Although Consideration is strongest where anticipated (Consideration/Consideration), similar sized coefficients are found for Persuasion (0.2400, 0.2031), Structure (0.2209, 0.2165, 0.2347), elsewhere on Consideration (0.2551, 0.2042), Production Emphasis (0.2513), Predictive Accuracy (0.2066, 0.2106), and Superior Orientation (0.2126, 0.2194).

As the coefficient is relatively low, it appears as if Consideration is not a strong factor in this study, whereas Representation, Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Production Emphasis, and Superior Orientation are.

The LBDQ - Form XII was chosen as the questionnaire to gather empirical data in this study due to its reliability, validity, and longevity. Most current questionnaires developed for the measurement of leadership behaviour have been criticized recently (Schriesheim, 1978; Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977). Although all questionnaires were considered suspect according to psychometric criteria, the LBDQ - Form XII is, perhaps, the most unscathed. The choice was made, also, because the LBDQ - Form XII measured a larger number of leadership behaviours than other questionnaires. Stogdill (1974:155) advised: "It would seem desirable to explore possibilities of a multifactor approach rather than rest content with a two-factor solution."

Statistical Procedures

Demographic questionnaires. The data gathered by use of the demographic questionnaires completed by the 15 leaders and the 146 participants were subjected to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) sub-programme known as "Frequencies" (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, and Bent, 1975:194-202). The output aided in developing descriptions of the subjects studied.

Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII. The raw data gathered by use of the LBDQ - Form XII were subjected to The University of Alberta Division of Education Research Services (DERS) programme (TEST 05). DERS TEST 05 converts the raw questionnaire item scores into raw and standardized sub-scale scores for each individual leader and for each corresponding group of participants. Comparisons can then be made between the leaders' and participants' descriptions of leadership visually and statistically (see Appendices E and F).

Techniques Used for Problem and Sub-problem Analyses

Sub-problem 3. Of interest to this study is the relationship between programme and leader demographic characteristics and both the overall leaders' and the overall participants' respective responses to each of the 12 LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales.

The problem statement developed to ascertain the relationship was: What are the relationships between the demographic characteristics of the 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes and both the overall leaders' and the overall participants' respective responses to each of the 12 LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales.

The problem statement developed to ascertain the relationship was: What are the relationships between the demographic characteristics of the 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes and both the leaders' and the participants' LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale scores? In this problem were considered the correlations between the programme characteristics, the leaders' characteristics, and both the leaders' and the participants' LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale scores. Also considered was effect of the leaders' demographic characteristics as predictors of both the leaders' and the participants' LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale scores.

A step-wise multiple regression analysis procedure was used to carry out this investigation with the sub-scale scores as the dependent variables and the leaders' demographic data as the independent variables. The SPSS sub-programme "Regression" (Nie et al., 1975) provided the necessary computations.

This particular programme provides a correlation matrix as well as providing the step-wise multiple regression equations. The correlation matrix was utilized to analyze the overall relationships between the independent and dependent variables.

As a result of scanning the leaders' demographic data, the following demographic variables were chosen to remain as possible predictor variables in the step-wise multiple regression analysis procedure, whereas the others were dropped due to the absence or the nature of the responses to those particular items on the returned questionnaires: variable 5 (sex of leader); variable 6 (age-range of leaders); variable 7 (any casual employment); variable 10 (amount of casual employment in years); variable 11 (any seasonal employment); variables 12 to 14 (amount of seasonal employment in weeks, months and years); variable 15 (any permanent employment); variable 18 (amount of permanent employment in years); variable 22 (accumulated employment in this type of programme in years); and variables 24 to 28 (any specific training in this type of programme; whether training was taken in Alberta, outside of Alberta, or in various locations; type of academic qualifications; highest level of academic diploma held; and the name of the academic diploma held).

Sub-problem 4. One-way analysis of variance procedures, utilizing SPSS sub-programme "Reliability" (Hull and Nie, 1979) were conducted with the LBDQ - Form XII response data to address sub-problem 4 (overall leaders' responses). An hypothesis to test the question of sub-problem 4 was developed and stated in the null-form as follows.

> $H_0$4: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by leaders of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes, when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII.

Sub-problems 4(a) and 4(b). One-way analysis of variance procedures, using SPSS sub-program "one-way" (Nie et al., 1975) were conducted with the LBDQ - Form XII response data to address sub-problems 4(a) and 4(b) (leaders' descriptions of their own behaviour in terms of experience and educational qualifications, respectively). Null hypotheses were developed and stated as follows:

> $H_0$4(a): There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by experienced and less-experienced leaders of municipally-operated recreation programmes on 12 sub-scales, when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII.

> $H_0$4(b): There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by qualified leaders and less-qualified leaders of municipally-operated recreation programmes on 12 sub-scales, when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII.

Sub-problem 5. One-way analysis of variance procedures, utilizing SPSS sub-programme "Reliability" (Hull and Nie, 1979), were conducted with the LBDQ - Form XII response data to address sub-problem 5 (overall participants' responses). An hypothesis to test the question of sub-problem 5 was developed and stated in the null-form as follows:

> $H_0$5: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by participants in 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes, when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII.

Sub-problem 5(a). This sub-problem is an extension of sub-problem 5. Where sub-problem 5 is concerned with the overall participant descriptions of leadership, sub-problem 5(a) is concerned with the differences in descriptions of leadership by individual groups of participants over each of the twelve LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales. One-way analysis of variance procedures, using SPSS sub-programme "Oneway" (Nie et al., 1975), were conducted with the response data pertaining to each of the twelve LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales to address sub-problem 5(a).

The following null-hypothesis was developed to test the question of sub-problem 5(a):

> $H_0$5(a): There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by participants in 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes on 12 sub-scales when measured by the LBDQ - Form XII.

Sub-problems 6, 6(a), 6(b), 6(c), and 6(d). One-way analysis of variance procedures, using SPSS sub-programme "Oneway" (Nie et al, 1975), were conducted with response data pertaining to each of the twelve LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales to address sub-problems 6, 6(a), 6(b), 6(c), and 6(d). Sub-problem 6 was concerned with the difference, if any, between the leaders' overall descriptions of leadership and the participants' overall descriptions of their leaders' leadership. The other sub-problems in this section were concerned with the relationships between the leader group and the participant group, when controlled for leaders' experience and academic qualifications. The null hypotheses regarding sub-problems 6 to 6(d) are stated as follows:

$H_0 6$: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by leaders of municipally-operated recreation programmes and the descriptions of leadership by participants in those recreation programmes on 12 sub-scales, when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII.

$H_0 6(a)$: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by experienced leaders of municipally-operated recreation programmes and the descriptions of leadership by participants in those recreation programmes conducted by those experienced leaders on 12 sub-scales, when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII.

$H_0 6(b)$: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by less-experienced leaders of municipally-operated recreation programmes and the descriptions of leadership by participants in those recreation programmes conducted by those less-experienced leaders on 12 sub-scales, when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII.

$H_0 6(c)$: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by qualified leaders of municipally-operated recreation programmes and the descriptions of leadership by participants in those recreation programmes conducted by those qualified leaders on 12 sub-scales, when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII.

$H_0$6(d): There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by less-qualified leaders of municipally-operated recreation programmes and the descriptions of leadership by participants in those recreation programmes conducted by those less-qualified leaders of 12 sub-scales, when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII.

For sub-problems 4(a), 4(b), 5(a), 6, 6(a), 6(b), 6(c), and 6(d), two or more groups were involved (either differentiated by qualification and experience of the leaders or as 15 different participant groups), the one-way analysis of variance procedures were employed to detect significant differences, if any, by LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale. Where appropriate, Scheffé _a posteriori_ tests of significance were applied to detect significant differencess if any, between groups on each sub-scale. If, for example, a difference were detected between the participant groups' overall score on a particular sub-scale, then the Scheffé test of contrast should indicate exactly which groups were contributing to the overall significant difference.

According to Nie et al. (1975):

> Scheffé uses a single range value for all comparisons, which is appropriate for examining all possible linear combinations of group means, not just pairwise comparisons. Thus it is stricter than other tests. Scheffé is exact, even for unequal group sizes p. 28).

According to Hopkins and Chadbourn (1967), the Scheffé test is most sensitive to detecting real differences between complex combinations of means. The Tukey test is chosen, after a significant omnibus F ratio is found, when a comparison of pairs of means is desired, while the Scheffé test is chosen for other comparisons. By using the Scheffé test, the decision was made in this study to avoid Type I errors at all costs in the first place, and then to compare a variety of group means over each LBDQ - Form XII subscale. To reduce the risk of making Type II errors, and because of the limited sample size (15) in this study, the alpha level of .15 was chosen instead of the usual .05. This procedure maintains the intrinsic qualities of the Scheffe test as well as increases the power of the test to detect differences between the 15 groups (Maquire, 1980).

The next chapter reports the results and findings of the empirical aspect of this study.

Chapter 5

RESULTS AND FINDINGS OF EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATIONS

This chapter consists of the results and findings of the empirical aspects of the study. Included is a discussion of the demographic characteristics of the leaders and participants of the fifteen municipally operated programmes selected for examination. The LBDQ - Form XII was employed to gather the leadership data and various statistical procedures for the analysis of the leadership data were employed in this study. The results and findings from addressing sub-problems 3, 4, 4(a), 4(b), 5, 5(a), 6, 6(a), 6(b), 6(c), and 6(d) with the aid of these statistical procedures are detailed. These findings are then compared in Chapter 6 with an analysis of the two literature reviews (Chapters 2 and 3). This chapter concludes with a summary.

Leaders' Demographic Questionnaire. Table 11 consists of the compilation of the responses of the 15 selected recreation leaders to the leaders' demographic questionnaire.

Sex. Seven of the leaders who participated in the study were male and eight were female. To determine whether municipal recreation programme leadership positions are equally distributed between the sexes throughout Alberta, a considerably larger sample than the number selected for this study would need to be taken. Those programmes designated as women's programmes were led by women. Those programmes which had similar names, such as adult swimming, swim instruction and lifesaving, and social

Table 11

Demographic Data Pertaining to Leaders of Fifteen Selected Municipal Recreation Programmes

Leader Group Number	Type of Programme	Sex of Leader	Age Range (Years)	Employment Experience in Recreation	Employment Experience in This Type of Programme	Specific Training for This Type of Programme	Where Specific Training Rec'd.	Academic Qualification Level	Highest Diploma Held	Major Emphasis of Study	Minor Emphasis of Study
1	Macrame	F	26 - 30	* 5 wks.	10 wks.	Nil	N/A	Less than Grade XII	N/A	N/A	N/A
2	Bridge	M	21 - 25	* 3 yrs. - 3 yrs.	5 yrs.	Yes	Alberta	More than 4 yrs. Univ.	B.A. (Hons)	Psychol.	Philosophy
3	Ladies' Keep Fit	F	31 - 35	+ 6 yrs.	6 yrs.	Yes	Alberta	Grade XII	N/A	N/A	N/A
4	Social Dancing	M	26 - 30	* 2 wks.	10 wks.	Nil	N/A	More than 4 yrs. Univ.	B.A. B.A.	History Rec Admin & P.E.	Philosophy Political Studies
5	Adult Swimming	F	Over 40	+ 30 yrs.	20 yrs.	Yes	Alberta	1 yr. College	N/A	N/A	N/A
6	Painting	M	Over 40	* 1½ yrs.	17 yrs.	Yes	U.S.A.	More than 4 yrs. Univ.	B.Eng.	Civil Eng.	Nil
7	Jive & Disco Dance	F	15 - 20	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Less than Grade XII	N/A	N/A	N/A
8	Women's Physical Culture	F	31 - 35	* 2 yrs.	Nil	Yes	Australia	1 yr. Univ.	N/A	N/A	N/A

Table 11

(Continued)

Leader Group Number	Type of Programme	Sex of Leader	Age Range (Years)	Employment Experience in Recreation	Employment Experience in This Type of Programme	Specific Training for This Type of Programme	Where Specific Training Rec'd.	Academic Qualification Level	Highest Diploma Held	Major Emphasis of Study	Minor Emphasis of Study
9	Community Band	M	Over 40	* 2 yrs. + 1 yr. - 17 yrs.	20 yrs.	Yes	U.S.A.	More than 4 yrs. Univ.	M.Ed. B.A.	Sec. Ed. Instr. Music Ed.	Music Ed. Choral Music
10	Canoe Construction	M	Over 40	* 6 wks.	6 wks.	Yes	Alberta	Less than Grade XII	N/A	N/A	N/A
11	Art	F	31 - 35	* 55 wks.	55 wks.	Yes	Alberta	More than 4 yrs. Univ.	B.Ed. B.A.	English Art	Art Nil
12	Swim Instruction	M	Over 40	* 12 yrs. + 38 mnths	5 yrs.	Yes	Alberta	4 yrs. Univ.	B.A.	Business Admin.	Common Law Credit Man.
13	Golf	M	26 - 30	* 2 yrs.	1 yr.	Nil	N/A	More than 4 yrs. Univ.	B.Sc.	Computing Science	Agriculture
14	Life Saving	F	Over 40	* 30 wks.	8 yrs.	Yes	Alberta	Grade XII	N/A	N/A	N/A
15	Dog Obedience	F	Over 40	* 26 yrs.	26 yrs.	Yes	U.S.A.	Grade XII	N/A	N/A	N/A

* Casual Employment + Seasonal Employment - Permanent Employment

dancing and jive and disco dance were equally distributed among the sexes.

Age ranges. The ages of the recreation leaders ranged from the 15 to 20 years of age bracket to the over 40 years of age group. Seven leaders were in the over 40 years of age bracket, three leaders were between 31 and 35 years of age, four leaders were between 20 and 30 years of age, and one leader was under 20 years of age. There was no one in the 36-40 years of age bracket, while the 31-35 years bracket consisted of females only. Two-thirds of the leaders were over 30 years of age.

Employment experience. All leaders, except for one, had had previous experience in conducting municipal recreation programmes of the type they were now leading. The length of experience, excepting the one leader who had had no previous experience, ranged from two weeks of casual experience to 26 years of casual experience. Twelve leaders reported that they had had casual employment experience, six leaders reported they had had seasonal employment experience, and only two reported any permanent employment experience. It is doubtful if these two people were referring to permanent employment in the recreation field. They may have been referring to permanent job experience, rather than municipal recreation experience as none of the 15 leaders had even been employed at a municipal department on a permanent basis. One of these people, the leader of the bridge class, was a practising psychologist, while the other was a local high school music teacher.

Ten leaders would be classified as experienced leaders according to the definition of "experienced" used for this study, i.e., two or more years of experience. The other five leaders would be designated as "less-experienced" leaders (see Table 12). Some leaders obviously were just commencing their experience as municipal recreation programme leaders, while others had been conducting programmes for many years.

Location of specific training for this type of programme. Eleven leaders had had specific training for the programmes they were leading, while the remaining four had had no specific training. Eight leaders had received their specific training in Alberta, three leaders had received their specific training in the United States of America, and one had been trained in Australia.

Academic qualifications. The academic levels of the fifteen leaders were distributed as: one Master's degree, six Bachelor's degrees, two people with one year of college or university, three people with grade 12 education, and three persons with less than grade 12 education (see Table 9). All Bachelor's degree holders, except one, had had more than four years of university. Two of these leaders actually had two Bachelor's degrees. Only one leader had had formal training in recreation, while most of the other degree holders were educated in disciplines not necessarily associated with what they were leading. The noticeable exceptions were the leader of the community band and the art instructor.

The major areas of study emphasis for graduate leaders were Psychology, History, Recreation Administration and Physical Education, Civil Engineering, Secondary Education, Art, English, Business Administration, and Computing Science.

The minor areas of study emphasis for the seven degree-holding leaders were Philosophy, Political Studies, Music, Education, Choral Music, Commercial Law and Credit Management, and Agriculture.

Table 12

Leaders' Instructional Experience and Academic Qualifications

Programme	Experience		Academic Qualifications (College or University)	
	2 or More Years	Less Than 2 Years	2 or More Years	Less Than 2 Years
1. Macrame		10 wks.		Less than Grade XII
2. Bridge	5 yrs.		B.A. (Honors) Psychology	
3. Ladies' Keep Fit	6 yrs.			Grade XII
4. Social Dancing		10 wks.	B.A. History B.A. Recreation Admin. & Phys.Ed.	
5. Adult Swimming	20 yrs.			1 yr. College
6. Painting	17 yrs.		B. Eng. (Civil Eng.)	
7. Jive & Disco Dance		Nil		Less than Grade XII

Table 12

(Continued)

Programme	Experience		Academic Qualifications (College or University	
	2 or More Years	Less Than 2 Years	2 or More Years	Less Than 2 Years
8. Women's Physical Culture	12 yrs.			1 yr. University
9. Community Band	20 yrs.		M.Ed. Secondary Education Music	
10. Canoe Construction		6 wks.		Less than Grade XII
11. Art		1 yr.	B.A. English B.A. Art	
12. Swim Instruction	3 yrs.		B.A. Business Administration	
13. Golf		1 yr.	B.Sc. Computing Science	
14. Life Saving	8 yrs.			Grade XII
15. Dog Obedience	26 yrs.			Grade XII

According to this study's definition of "qualified", which meant two or more years of tertiary education, seven leaders were "qualified" and eight leaders were "less-qualified" (see Table12). Only one leader had recreation qualifications. The others had two or more years of academic qualifications (B.A. Honours, Psychology; B. Eng., Civil Eng.; B.A., Bus. Admin.; B.A., English and B.A., Art; B.Sc., Computing Science; M.Ed., Secondary Educ.). According to Kraus and Curtis (1977:79), civil service qualifications for the position of recreation leader usually specify either a college degree in recreation or a related field or a minimum of two years of college. Although four of the leaders had adequate qualifications to meet the requirements of this study's definition for being qualified and were well qualified according to Kraus and Curtis' (1977) civil service standards they did not appear to be using their qualifications to lead the programmes of which they were in charge. The community band and the art leaders had appropriate qualifications for their programme.

Participants' Demographic Questionnaire. Table **13** consists of the responses to the demographic questionnaire devised for the 146 participants in the 15 selected municipal recreation programmes.

Sex. Of the 146 participants, 33 were male and 113 were female. The ladies' keep fit class, women's physical culture, the art class, and the dog obedience programme each had ten female participants. Most males (eight) were to be found in the canoe construction course.

Age range. The social dancing group, the jive and disco dance group, the community band class and the lifesaving programme all had average ages of less than twenty years. Four groups' (macrame, adult swimming, women's physical culture, dog obedience) average ages were

Table 13

Demographic Data Pertaining to Participants of Fifteen Selected Municipal Recreation Programmes

Group Number	Type of Programme	Number of Participants	Sexes Represented		Age Range (Years)	Average Age (Years)	Participants with Previous Recreation Programme Experience	Participants with Previous Experience in This Type of Programme
			Male	Female				
1	Macrame	10		10	22-30	26.2	6	1
2	Bridge	10	3	7	28-42	32.9	9	2
3	Ladies' Keep Fit	10		10	29-56	34.9	6	5
4	Social Dancing	10	5	5	17-18	17.5	4	1
5	Adult Swimming	10	2	8	18-44	25.6	8	4
6	Painting	8	2	6	16-53	32.5	5	2
7	Jive & Disco Dance	10	1	9	13-34	18.2	9	1
8	Women's Physical Culture	10		10	16-32	27.4	5	1
9	Community Band	10	5	5	13-38	18.8	5	3
10	Canoe Construction	9	8	1	15-50	33.7	4	1
11	Art	10		10	31-69	41.7	6	4
12	Swim Instruction	10	3	7	16-36	29.1	6	6
13	Golf	10	3	7	21-47	30.8	4	0
14	Life Saving	9	2	7	14-18	15.5	9	6
15	Dog Obedience	10		10	15-38	20.5	6	1
	TOTALS	146	44	112	Range 13-69	Average 27.02	112	38

in the twenties, and the remaining groups' average ages were over thirty years. The art class ages ranged from thirty years to sixty-nine, with an average age of 41.7 years, while the youngest group was the lifesaving class with an average age of 15.0 years. Eleven groups had teenagers mixed with adults.

Number of participants who had previously attended municipal recreation programmes. Everybody in the lifesaving class had attended some municipal recreation programmes previously. All other groups contained some participants who had had no previous municipal recreation experience. A total of 17 males and 74 females had participanted in previous programmes.

Number of participants who had previously attended municipal recreation programmes of the type they now attended. The golf programme was the only programme with total beginners. All other groups had some participants returning to similar programmes, although, by and large, the numbers were small. Macrame had two, social dancing had one, painting had two, jive and disco dance had one, and dog obedience had one participant who had had previous instruction in a similar programme.

In total, seven males and 33 females had had previous experience in programmes in which they were enrolled. Fifty-five out of the 146 participants had had no previous municipal recreation programme experience whatsoever. Of these, 16 were males and 39 were females.

Use of the LBDQ - Form Xll in the Measurement of Recreation Leadership. Sub-problem 3: Variable Interrelationships and Combined Interrelationships.

It was of interest to this study to examine the relationships between the leaders' demographic variables and the LBDQ - Form Xll subscale scores both for leaders and for participants. The problem statement developed to ascertain these relationships was: What are the relationships between the demorgaphic characteristics of the 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes and both the overall leaders' and participants LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale scores? Considered was how the programme and leader characteristics correlated with both sets of LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale scores. Also considered was how the leaders' demorgaphic characteristics acted as predictors of both the leaders' and the participants' LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale scores.

The SPSS sub-programme "Regression" was utilized to provide a correlation matrix and a stepwise multiple regression analysis, with the leaders' and participants' LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale scores as dependent variables and the leaders' demographic data as the predictors.

Variable Interrelationships: Correlation Analysis

Appendix G consists of the correlation matrix showing the relationships between the characteristics of the recreation programmes investigated, the leaders' demographic characteristics, and the scores obtained by both leaders and their programme participant groups on each of the twelve LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales. Correlation coefficients -.514 are significant at the .05 level, and correlation coefficients -.614 are significant at the .01 level, for 13 degrees of freedom (Ferguson, 1959:315).

Leaders' Characteristics. Table 14 shows the significant correlations found between the various demographic characteristics of the leaders.

Results. The sex of the leaders correlated significantly with the name of the academic degree held and the major area of study emphasis for that degree. The age range of the leaders correlated significantly with the amount of previous employment experience,

Table 14

Significant Correlations Between Leaders'

Demographic Characteristics

Leader Characteristics	Sex	Age Range	Any Cas. Employment	Amt. Cas. Employ. (Yrs)	Amt. Seas. Employ. (Wks)	Accum. Employ. This Prog. (Yrs)	Any Spec. Traing. This Prog.	Type of Academ. Quals.	Highest Degree Held	Name of Deg.	Major Emphs.
Amt. Seas. Employ (Yrs)			.52								
No. Prev. Employ.		-.55									
Accum. Employ. This Programme (Wks)					.80						
Accum. Employ. This Programme (Yrs)		.62		.52							
No. Prev. Employ. This Programme		-.55									
Any Spec. Training This Programme		-.69				-.55					
Location of Spec. Training		.66				.79	-.83				
Highest Degree Held								.97			
Name of Degree	-.55							.94	.96		
Major Study Emphasis	-.55							.94	.96	1.0	
Minor Study Emphasis								.98	.99	.99	.97

.514 sig. at .05 level
.614 sig. at .01 level

whether in the types of programmes they were now leading or in others, and with the location of any specific training for the programmes they were now leading. The location of specific training for the programmes the leaders were leading correlated significantly with whether the leaders had had specific training or not for leading programmes. The type of academic qualifications held by the leaders correlated significantly with other data pertaining to the achievement of academic qualifications.

Discussion. The negative correlations between the sex of the leaders and certain academic qualifications (name of degree held, major area of study emphasis) was due to the male leaders being the ones who had completed university educations whereas the majority of leaders were female and less qualified (see Table 11). The younger leaders had had less specific training for the programmes they were leading than did the older leaders, and naturally this relationship was reflected in the next variable concerned with the location of their specific training. Four of the younger leaders (15-30 years) had had no specific training and four of the older leaders (31-over 40 years) had had their specific training outside of the Province of Alberta. Only seven of the fifteen leaders had received their training in Alberta. As the other leaders had had previous experience, it was to be expected that negative correlations would exist between age range and lack of previous experience.

Leaders' Characteristics and Leaders' LBDQ - Form X11 Sub-Scale Scores. Table 15 includes the significant correlations found between the leaders' characteristics and the leaders' scores on the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale scores.

Table 15

Significant Correlations Between Leaders' Characteristics and Leaders' Scores on LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scales

Leaders' LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scales	Leaders' Characteristics												
	Any Sess. Employ.	Amt. Sess. Employ. (Wks)	Any Perm. Employ. ½	Amount Perm. Employ.(Yrs)	Accum. Employ. This Prog. (Wks)	Accum. Employ. This Prog. (Yrs)	Any Spec. Trng. This Prog.	Loc. Spec. Trng.	Type Ac. Qual. Qual.	High. Deg. Held	Name Deg.	Maj. Emph.	Min. Emph.
Demand Reconciliation			.63	-.64									
Tol. of Uncertainty				-.70									
Persuasion							-.55						
Initiating Structure		.62				.60	.53	.57					
Tol. of Freedom		.56			.52			.56					
Role Assumption				-.58						.62			
Predictive Accuracy									.68		.64	.64	.65
Integration	-.54												
Superior Orientation						.59		.58	.61	.56			.55

.514 sig. at .05 level
.614 sig. at .01 level

Results. The amount of seasonal employment for the leaders correlated significantly with the leaders' scores on the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales Integreation, Initiating Structure, and Tolerance of Freedom. The amount of permanent employment for the leaders correlated significantly with their scores on the sub-scales Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Uncertainty and Role Assumption. The amount of accumulated employment experience in the programmes the leaders were leading correlated significantly with their scores on the sub-scales Tolerance of Freedom, Initiating Structure, and Superior Orientation. The amount of specific training for the programmes being led correlated significantly with leaders' scores on Persuasion and Initiating Structure. The location of that specific training correlated significantly with leaders' scores on Initiating Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, and Superior Orientation. The leaders' academic qualifications correlated significantly with leaders' scores on Role Assumption, Predictive Accuracy, and Superior Orientation.

Discussion. Those leaders who described themselves as being unable to maintain a closely knit group and to reconcile conflicting demands tended to be employed in seasonal positions. Seasonally employed leaders tended to be employed in the types of programmes they were now leading. They were concerned with clearly defined roles and role expectations, and tolerated participant-initiated actions. Seasonal employment experience which had accumulated into months appeared to have been accumulated by the leaders in the same types of programmes they were now leading.

The leaders of the bridge class and the community band (see Table 11) had accumulated twenty years of permanent employment between them. No other leaders admitted to having had any permanent employment experience. Those leaders who had had permanent employment experience tended not to describe themselves as being over considerate or able to reconcile conflicting demands. The community band leader claimed seventeen years of permanent employment experience and his raw scores on the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Role Assumption, and Consideration were low (13,21,28, and 33 respectively), thus contributing significantly to the above results.

The leaders who had had specific training for the programmes they were leading considered themselves as being persuasive and able to clarify role expectations.

Those leaders who claimed their specific programme training was taken outside of Alberta described themselves as high on the initiation of structure as able to tolerate group member freedom of action, and as having good relations with their superiors.

Leaders with high academic qualifications regarded themselves as able to exhibit foresight and as able to predict outcomes as well as having influence and good relations with their superiors.

Leaders' Characteristics and Participant Groups' LBDQ - Form X11 Sub-Scales. Table 16 shows the significant correlations found between the leaders' demographic characteristics and the participants' scores on the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales.

Results. Few significant correlations were found between the leaders' demographic characteristics and the participants' scores on the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-sclaes. The amount of casual employment experience gained by the leaders correlated significantly with the participants' scores on the sub-scales Initiating Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Predictive Accuracy, Integration and Superior Orientation. Whether the leaders had had any seasonal employment experience or not correlated significantly with the participants' scores on the sub-scale Demand Reconciliation.

Table 16

Significant Correlations Between Leader Characteristics and Participants' LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scale Scores

Participants LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scales	Leader Characteristics			
	Amt. Cas. Employ. (Wks)	Amt. Cas. Employ. (Yrs)	Any Seas. Employ.	Accum. Employ. This Prog.
Demand Reconciliation			.54	.63
Initiating Structure	-.69			
Tol. of Freedom		-.62		.57
Production Emphasis	-.59			
Predictive Accuracy	-.52	.56		
Integration	-.68			
Superior Orientation	-.68			
	.514 sig. at .05 level .614 sig. at .01 level			

The amount of accumulated employment experience in the types of programmes the leaders were leading correlated significantly with the participants' scores on the sub-scales Demand Reconciliation and Tolerance of Freedom.

Discussion. The leaders who had accumulated large amounts of casual employment (in weeks) were not favourably described by their participants as being concerned with the initiation of structure, emphasizing production output, exhibiting foresight, maintaining a closely-knit organization, and maintaining cordial relations with their superiors. Those leaders who had accumulated few weeks of casual employment experience were described more favourably by their participants in the exhibition of these leader behaviours. The participants described the leaders with seasonal employment and accumulated employment experience in the programmes they were leading as being able to reconcile conflicting demands and able to tolerate initiative and action by their programme participants.

Leaders' and Participants' LBDQ - Form X11 Sub-Scale Scores. Table 17 shows the significant correlations found between the leaders' LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale scores and the participants' LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale scores.

Results. The leaders' scores on Tolerance of Freedom correlated significantly with their participants' scores on Role Assumption. The leaders' scores on Persuasion correlated significantly with their participants' scores on Demand Reconciliation, Persuasion, and Role Assumption. The leaders' scores on Tolerance of Freedom correlated significantly with their participants' scores on Demand Reconciliation and Persuasion. The leaders' scores on Role Assumption

Table 17

Significant Correlations Between Leaders' and Participants'

LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scale Scores

Participants' LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scales	Leaders' LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scales					
	Tol. of Uncert.	Per- suasion	Tol. of Free.	Role Assum.	Consid.	Prod. Emph.
Demand Reconciliation		.56	.55	.60		
Persuasion		.65	.59			
Role Assumption	.55	.62		.65	.68	
Production Emphasis						.54
	.514 sig. at .05 level .614 sig. at .01 level					

correlated significantly with their participants' scores on Demand Reconciliation and Role Assumption. The leaders' scores on Production Emphasis correlated significantly with their participants' scores on Production Emphasis.

Discussion. The manner in which the leaders described their behaviour regarding being persuasive, being able to retain the leadership in their own hands, and pushing for production output corresponded significantly to the manner in which their programme participants perceived them to behave. Whereas pushing for production output appears to be a distinct behaviour, persuasiveness and retaining the leadership role appear to be closely allied to the ability to tolerate uncertainties, to the ability to tolerate member initiative and freedom of action, to being considerate of members needs and feelings, and to the ability to reconcile conflict demands within the group. The former behaviour is akin to task-orientation and the latter behaviours are akin to group orientation. These data tend to support the notion of groups consisting of two dimensions: the "socio" dimension (task -orientated) and the "psyche" dimension (group-orientated) (Knowles and Knowles, 1972: 51).

Combined Interrelationships: Stepwise Multiple Regression

Results. Table 18 consists of the resultant R^2 and R^2 Change values of each of the demographic variables as they related to each sub-scale for the leaders and for the participants. Alongside the R^2 Change value column for each sub-scale is the order in which each demographic variable entered the regression equation. It can be seen from the Table that the leaders' demographic variables of "any casual employment," "age range," and "sex" are regularly among the first three predictors to enter the regression equation for each of the leaders' and participants' sub-scale scores, albeit, not strongly. Consistently, 13 of the 16 demographic variables, chosen as possible predictors, appeared in each equation. It will be noted that employment experience variables, in most cases, entered the regression equation before the variables depicting academic qualifications. Age range, any casual employment, and sex combined to give a predictor value of $R^2 = .55$ for the leaders' score on the sub-scale, Initiating Structure. Sex, any casual employment, age range, and any permanent employment, combined to give a predictor value of $R^2 = .69$ for the leaders' Demand Reconciliation score. Age range,

Table 18

Leaders' Demographic Variables as Predictors of Leaders' and Participants' LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scale Scores

LEADERS' DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES		LBDQ - FORM XII SUB-SCALES																	
		Representation			Reconciliation			Tolerance of Uncertainty			Persuasion			Structure			Tolerance of Freedom		
		R²	Ch	*	R²	Ch	*	R²	Ch	*	R²	Ch	*	R²	Ch	*	R²	Ch	*
Sex	L	.43	.01	4	.04	.04	1	.48	.01	4	.04	.00	2	.55	.06	3	.08	.01	3
	P	.25	.00	3	.15	.05	2	.07	.04	2	.25	.03	4	.04	.04	1	.10	.02	3
Age Range	L	.23	.00	2	.10	.01	3	.17	.01	2	.04	.04	1	.26	.26	1	.07	.03	2
	P	.16	.16	1	.32	.02	4	.10	.01	3	.08	.04	2	.10	.01	3	.12	.12	1
Any Casual Employment	L	.25	.25	1	.08	.04	2	.16	.16	1	.05	.00	3	.49	.23	2	.05	.05	1
	P	.24	.08	2	.10	.10	1	.04	.04	1	.05	.05	1	.09	.06	2	.18	.05	2
Amount of Casual Employment (Years)	L	.44	.19	3	.83	.00	8	.85	.01	9	.20	.16	4	.70	.15	4	.57	.05	6
	P	.43	.08	5	.35	.00	7	.36	.12	5	.40	.03	6	.33	.23	4	.42	.22	4
Any Seasonal Employment	L	.86	.02	7	.83	.00	9	.84	.01	8	.32	.05	6	.87	.01	8	.63	.01	8
	P	.35	.10	4	.52	.02	9	.40	.04	6	.49	.00	8	.38	.05	5	.58	.03	6
Amount of Seasonal Employment (Weeks)	L	.84	.18	6	.72	.03	6	.73	.25	5	.27	.07	5	.76	.06	5	.42	.34	4
	P	.51	.02	8	.30	.16	3	.64	.06	10	.21	.13	3	.42	.02	7	.55	.13	5
Amount of Seasonal Employment (Months)	L	.91	.05	8	.73	.03	5	.47	.30	3	.50	.12	8	.86	.05	7	.52	.10	5
	P	.49	.02	7	.57	.05	10	.40	.00	7	.49	.01	7	.41	.03	6	.60	.00	9
Amount of Seasonal Employment (Years)	L	.92	.01	9	.83	.09	7	.84	.05	7	.52	.03	9	.87	.00	9	.62	.05	7
	P	.47	.04	6	.33	.01	5	.24	.15	4	.63	.03	10	.43	.01	8	.59	.01	7
Any Permanent Employment	L	.67	.22	3	.69	.58	4	.79	.06	6	.38	.05	7	.81	.05	6	.65	.02	9
	P	.51	.00	9	.34	.01	6	.58	.10	9	.44	.20	5	.43	.06	9	.60	.01	8
Amount of Permanent Employment (Years)	L	.96	.03	10	.85	.02	10	.95	.10	10	.64	.12	10	.69	.07	10	.73	.08	10
	P	.76	.24	10	.50	.15	8	.48	.08	8	.40	.11	9	.74	.31	10	.67	.07	10
Amount of Accumulated Employment in This Type of Programme (Years)	L	.97	.01	11	.86	.10	11	.96	.00	11	.65	.01	11	.89	.00	11	.79	.06	11
	P	.78	.02	11	.66	.10	11	.93	.01	12	.72	.09	11	.87	.13	11	.74	.07	11
Any Specific Training for This Type of Programme	L				.96	.02	13	1.00	.04	12									
	P	.99	.00	13	.93	.26	12	.92	.29	11	.84	.12	12				.90	.16	12
Location of Training: In Alta.; Outside Alta.; Various	L	.99	.02	12	.94	.08	12				.77	.12	12				.99	.20	12
	P	.99	.21	12															
Type of Academic Qualifications	L							1.00	.00	13				.97	.05	13			
	P													.97	.04	13			
Highest Level of Degree Held	L	.99	.00	13							.99	.22	13	.92	.03	12	1.00	.03	13
	P				.99	.06	13	.95	.02	13	.95	.11	13	.93	.06	12	.96	.07	13
Name of Degree Held	L																		
	P																		

LEADERS' DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES		LBDQ - FORM XII SUB-SCALES																	
		Role Assumption			Consideration			Production Emphasis			Predictive Accuracy			Integration			Superior Orientation		
		R²	Ch	*	R²	Ch	*	R²	Ch	*	R²	Ch	*	R²	Ch	*	R²	Ch	*
Sex	L	.06	.00	3	.39	.17	2	.39	.06	4	.13	.13	1	.45	.01	4	.09	.01	2
	P	.07	.00	2	.32	.01	4	.03	.03	1	.07	.07	1	.28	.05	3	.12	.12	1
Age Range	L	.05	.01	2	.22	.22	1	.04	.04	1	.26	.01	3	.13	.01	2	.08	.08	1
	P	.25	.02	4	.04	.02	2	.05	.02	2	.13	.00	3	.23	.05	2	.32	.03	3
Any Casual Employment	L	.04	.04	1	.43	.04	3	.05	.01	2	.24	.11	2	.12	.12	1	.10	.01	3
	P	.07	.07	1	.03	.01	1	.06	.01	3	.13	.06	2	.18	.18	1	.29	.17	2
Amount of Casual Employment (Years)	L	.91	.01	10	.90	.00	9	.64	.25	5	.78	.05	9	.79	.08	6	.68	.01	9
	P	.29	.00	8	.67	.00	10	.55	.49	4	.30	.04	5	.44	.16	4	.54	.09	5
Any Seasonal Employment	L	.12	.06	4	.90	.00	8	.74	.10	6	.73	.05	8	.09	.02	8	.66	.03	8
	P	.29	.00	7	.40	.03	6	.70	.07	7	.40	.03	7	.50	.01	8	.45	.13	4
Amount of Seasonal Employment (Weeks)	L	.28	.07	6	.88	.07	6	.81	.07	7	.63	.09	6	.72	.27	5	.33	.12	5
	P	.29	.00	6	.46	.00	8	.60	.05	5	.91	.13	10	.49	.03	7	.56	.02	6
Amount of Seasonal Employment (Months)	L	.21	.09	5	.69	.26	4	.84	.00	9	.40	.14	4	.44	.31	3	.51	.18	6
	P	.29	.04	5	.46	.06	7	.63	.03	6	.38	.07	6	.52	.02	9	.61	.01	8
Amount of Seasonal Employment (Years)	L	.30	.01	8	.90	.02	7	.84	.02	8	.68	.04	7	.90	.02	9	.63	.12	7
	P	.24	.16	3	.30	.26	3	.72	.01	10	.42	.02	8	.46	.01	6	.60	.04	7
Any Permanent Employment	L	.29	.01	7	.81	.12	5	.33	.30	3	.55	.15	5	.07	.06	7	.21	.11	4
	P	.56	.14	10	.37	.05	5	.70	.00	8	.26	.13	4	.45	.01	5	.62	.01	9
Amount of Permanent Employment (Years)	L	.90	.60	9	.92	.02	10	.04	.00	10	.80	.02	10	.90	.00	10	.76	.09	10
	P	.41	.12	9	.67	.21	9	.71	.01	9	.78	.36	9	.78	.25	10	.95	.33	10
Amount of Accumulated Employment in This Type of Programme (Years)	L	.94	.03	11	.97	.00	12	.85	.01	11	.88	.08	11	.91	.01	11	.95	.19	11
	P	.81	.02	12	.72	.05	11	.93	.21	11	.99	.07	11	.78	.01	11	.95	.00	11
Any Specific Training for This Type of Programme	L				.97	.04	11										1.00	.01	13
	P	.80	.24	11				.99	.04	13				1.00	.01	13	1.00	.03	13
Location of Training: In Alta.; Outside Alta.; Various	L	1.00	.03	13													.99	.04	12
	P							.95	.03	12	1.00	.00	13						
Type of Academic Qualifications	L							.88	.03	12	.94	.06	12	.93	.02	12			
	P				1.00	.21	13												
Highest Level of Degree Held	L				.99	.02	13	.93	.05	13	.99	.05	13	.99	.06	13			
	P	.98	.17	13	.79	.06	12							.98	.20	12	.97	.02	12
Name of Degree Held	L	.97	.03	12															
	P										1.00	.01	12						

Ch = R² Change   * = Position of Entry in Equation   L = Leaders   P = Participants sex, any casual employment, and amount of seasonal employment (years) accounted for a predictor value of $R^2 = .69$ for leader Consideration. For all other leaders' and participants' sub-scale scores, five, six, seven, eight, nine and for the participants' sub-scale score on Structure, ten variables were required in the regression equations before an R^2 value of .50 was attainable.

Discussion. The result of the stepwise multiple regression analysis show that employment experience, age, and sex of the leaders included in the study are, perhaps, the best predictors of the leaders' scores on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales of Representation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Integration. The same types of demographic characteristics of leaders are reasonable predictors of the participants' descriptions of their leaders' behaviour on similar sub-scales including Production Emphasis. A review of the demographic characteristics of the leaders (Table 7), revealed that the majority of female leaders were aged between thirty-one years and over forty years. Four male leaders were aged between thirty-one years of age and two were in the twenty-six to thirty years of age bracket, thus accounting for the prominent position age plays as a predictor of leadership in this study. The women leaders had spent a considerable number of years accumulating employment experience (thirty-nine years of casual employment, thirty-eight years of seasonal employment, and thirty-six years in permanent positions). The male leaders had accumulated less employment experience than the women, although their casual employment accumulated to thirty-seven years. They had had considerably less seasonal experience (sixteen years) and one man (community band leader) claimed seventeen years of permanent employment experience. In this study, these data account for the regular occurrence of age range as a predictor of leadership. The sub-scale scores (Appendices E and F) are evenly dispersed between female and male leaders both for leaders' scores and participants' scores. The aspect of sex, which appeared frequently in the stepwise multiple regression equations, although not as prominently as employment experience and age range, was due apparently to the fact that there were eight female leaders and only seven male leaders. The greater number of females, coupled with their greater amounts of employment experience, accounts for the result that the sex of an individual may be considered as a predictor of leadership in this study. Overall, leader demographic characteristics of age, sex, and employment experience may be considered in predicting more favourable dexcriptions of leader Representation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Integration in the recreation situation. Stogdill has advised, however, that the LBDQ - Form XII "was designed for use as a recreation device. It is not recommended for use in selection, assignment, or assessment purposes" (Stogdill, 1963:6). Further research is required to better understand the relationships between demographic variables and measures of leadership.

Leaders' Self Descriptions: Analysis of Variance

Sub-problem 4 - LBDQ - Form XII Overall. How do recreation leaders describe leadership? Each leader was asked to complete the LBDQ - Form XII at the same time their programme participants completed the questionnaire. In accordance with Stogdill's (1963) manual, special instructions were given to the leaders to describe their own leadership. One-way analysis of variance for repeated measures was used to test the null hypothesis:

H_o4: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by leaders of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes, when measured by the LBDQ - Form XII.

Results. Table 19 consists of the summary of analysis of variance. The F ratio of 72.54 is highly significant. The null hypothesis is rejected. Leaders of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes describe their own leadership behaviour significantly differently.

Discussion. Fifteen individuals, of different ages, training, and experience, and leading different types of recreation programmes, such as a bridge class and a dog obedience school, describe their behaviour differently. A review of raw data (Appendix E) reveals that, for the sub-scale Representation, three leaders achieved the same score (21), and three different pairs achieved the same scores (15, 17, and 18). On the sub-scale Demand Reconciliation five different pairs achieved the same score (41) and two people achieved the same score (39) on the sub-scale, Tolerance of Freedom. For Persuasion, three pairs achieved the same scores (38, 41, and 45). The scores 36, 37 and 41 were achieved by three different pairs for Structure. For Tolerance of Freedom, three leaders scored the same with the score 38, three scored 43, and two leaders scored 37. Two leaders scored 44 and three leaders scored 39 for the sub-scale Role Assumptton. For the sub-scale Consideration a pair of leaders scored 33 and another pair scored 46. Considerable diversity occurred on Production Emphasis, with only two pairs of leaders scoring 24, two scored 18, and another two scored 16. Four leaders scored 21, two scored 18, two scored 20, and two scored 25 on Integration. For the sub-scale, Superior Orientatton, three leaders

Table 19

Summary of Analysis of Variance Between Leaders' Descriptions of Leader Behaviour When Measured by the LBDQ - Form XII

Source	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Between	1392.9111	14	99.49365		
Within	16953.41667	165	102.74798		
Between Measures	14210.86111	11	1291.89646	72.54258	0.000 *
Residual	2742.55556	154	17.80880		
Total	18346.32778	179	102.44345		

* Significant at 0.05 level

scored 41, three scored 34, and two scored 31.

From the above, it can be seen that much diversity prevailed, although the scores on Predictive Accuracy showed some convergence. Of interest is the fact that the leader of the painting class scored himself highest over eight sub-scales. The leader of the community band scored the lowest over four sub-scales. Overall, the leader of the golf class described his leadership the least favourably, while the leader of the painting class described his leadership the most favourably. Across the sub-scales, the leaders described their leadership most favourably on Predictive Accuracy. Initiation of Structure and Consideration were the two sub-scales on which the leaders, overall, described their leadership most unfavourably.

Sub-problem 4(a) - LBDQ - Form XII by Experience on Sub-Scales. Sub-problem 4(a) was concerned with the relationship between descriptions of leadership by experienced recreation leaders and descriptions of leadership by less-experienced recreation leaders.

The leader's LBDQ - Form XII raw score data cards were coded according to whether they belonged either in the experienced or less-experienced categories. Ten of the fifteen leaders were considered to be "experienced" (see Table 12). One-way analysis of variance was used to test the specific null hypotheses pertaining to the "experience" characteristics of the leaders on each of the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales, using raw scores.

For the differences between the experienced and less-experienced leaders, null hypotheses were developed to be tested for each LBDQ - Form

XII sub-scale. As an example, the null hypothesis developed for the sub-scale Representation was operationally stated as:

> $H_o4(a)i$: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by experienced leaders and the descriptions of leadership by less-experienced leaders of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Representation.

Similar null hypotheses were developed for each of the other LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales with appropriate changes in wording to apply to each different sub-scale. No a posteriori contrast test results are available as the SPSS sub-programme "one-way" does not perform range tests with fewer than three non-empty groups.

Results. Table 20 contains the summaries of the results from the analysis of variance for each sub-scale for tve comparison between descriptions of leadership by experienced and less-experienced leaders.

The F ratios for Predictive Accuracy (F = 5.122) and Superior Orientation (F = 4.696) were the only F ratios found to be significant at the 0.05 level. The null hypotheses for all sub-scales, except Predictive Accuracy and Superior Orientation, must be accepted. There are no significant differences between the descriptions of leadership by experienced and by less-experienced leaders of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Persuasion, Initiating Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Role Assumption, Consideration, Production Emphasis and Integration.

The null hypotheses for the sub-scales Predictive Accuracy and Superior Orientation, on the otver hand, must be rejected. There are

Table 20

Summaries of the Results from the Analysis of Variance Between Experienced Leaders' and Less-Experienced Leaders' Descriptions of Leader Behaviour When Measured by the LBDQ - Form XII Per Sub-Scale

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Representation	Between	1	9.6333	9.6333	0.969	0.3430
	Within	13	129.3000	9.9461		
	TOTAL	14	138.9333			
Reconciliation	Between	1	2.1333	2.1333	0.177	0.6809
	Within	13	156.8000	12.0615		
	TOTAL	14	158.9332			
Tolerance of Uncertainty	Between	1	0.0000	0.0000	0.000	1.0000
	Within	13	587.5992	45.1999		
	TOTAL	14	587.5992			
Persuasion	Between	1	3.3304	3.3304	0.097	0.7604
	Within	13	446.3994	34.3384		
	TOTAL	14	449.7297			
Structure	Between	1	64.5302	64.5302	4.298	0.0586
	Within	13	195.2000	15.0154		
	TOTAL	14	259.7300			

Table 20

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Tolerance of Freedom	Between	1	40.8272	40.8272	1.931	0.1880
	Within	13	274.8999	21.1461		
	TOTAL	14	315.7271			
Role Assumption	Between	1	0.1333	0.1333	0.004	0.9485
	Within	13	399.5996	30.7384		
	TOTAL	14	399.7329			
Consideration	Between	1	4.0334	4.0334	0.121	0.7330
	Within	13	431.6995	33.2076		
	TOTAL	14	435.7327			
Production Emphasis	Between	1	132.3027	132.3027	3.754	0.0747
	Within	13	458.0999	35.2384		
	TOTAL	14	590.4026			
Predictive Accuracy	Between	1	32.0349	32.0349	5.122	0.0414*
	Within	13	81.2999	6.2538		
	TOTAL	14	113.3348			

Table 20

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Integration	Between	1	7.5000	7.5000	1.217	0.2899
	Within	13	80.0999	6.1615		
	TOTAL	14	87.5999			
Superior Orientation	Between	1	158.6945	158.6945	4.696	0.0494*
	Within	13	439.2994	33.7923		
	TOTAL	14	597.9937			

* Significant at 0.05 level

significant differences between the descriptions of leadership by experienced leaders and by less-experienced leaders on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales Predictive Accuracy and Superior Orientation.

Discussion. The results indicate that the more experienced recreation leaders tend to regard themselves as exhibiting foresight as being better able to predict outcomes accurately than do less-experienced leaders. The more experienced recreation leaders tend to consider themselves as maintaining cordial relations with superiors and having influence with them than do less-experienced recreation leaders. Other than in these two types of behaviour, experience in the field does not differentiate between recreation leaders in the ten other types of leadership behaviour accounted for by the LBDQ - Form XII.

Sub-problem 4(b) - LBDQ - Form XII by Training on Sub-Scales. The concern of sub-problem 4(b) was with a comparison between the descriptions of leadership by qualified leaders and by less-qualified leaders.

The leaders' LBDQ - Form XII raw score data cards were coded according to whether they belonged in the qualified or less-qualified categories. Seven leaders were judged "qualified" and eight were "less-qualified" according to the criterion used for this study (see Table 12).

For the differences between the qualified and less-qualified leaders' descriptions of leadership to be examined, appropriate null hypotheses were developed for each of the twelve LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales. As an example, the null hypothesis respecting the sub-scale Representation was operationally stated as:

$H_0 4(b)$: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by qualified leaders and the descriptions of leadership by less-qualified leaders of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Representation.

Results. Table 21 presents the summaries of the analysis of variance for each sub-scale for the comparison between descriptions of leadership by qualified and less-qualified leaders.

The F ratio for Predictive Accuracy (F = 5.677) was the only F ratio found to be significant at the 0.05 level. The null hypotheses for all sub-scales, with the exception of the sub-scale Predictive Accuracy, must be accepted. There are no significant differences between the descriptions of leadership by qualified leaders and by less-qualified leaders of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Persuasion, Initiating Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Role Assumption, Consideration, Production Emphasis, Integration, and Superior Orientation. There is, however, a significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by qualified leaders and by less-qualified leaders of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Predictive Accuracy.

Discussion. These results indicate that academic qualifications have little bearing on the way recreation leaders see themselves behaving, although more qualified leaders tend to regard themselves as better able to foresee future events and predict future outcomes than do the less-qualified recreation leaders.

Table 21

Summary of Analysis of Variance Between Qualified Leaders' and Less-Qualified Leaders' Descriptions of Leader Behaviour When Measured by the LBDQ - Form XII Per Sub-Scale

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Representation	Between	1	2.2039	2.2039	0.210	0.6547
	Within	13	136.7321	10.5179		
	TOTAL	14	138.9360			
Reconciliation	Between	1	1.2200	1.2200	0.101	0.7562
	Within	13	157.7142	12.1319		
	TOTAL	14	158.9342			
Tolerance of Uncertainty	Between	1	2.1052	2.1052	0.047	0.8322
	Within	13	585.4995	45.0384		
	TOTAL	14	587.6045			
Persuasion	Between	1	2.0023	2.0023	0.058	0.8132
	Within	13	447.7319	34.4409		
	TOTAL	14	449.7341			
Structure	Between	1	4.4291	4.4291	0.226	0.6427
	Within	13	255.3035	19.6387		
	TOTAL	14	259.7324			

Table 21

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Tolerance of Freedom	Between	1	1.1416	1.1416	0.047	0.8314
	Within	13	314.5892	24.1992		
	TOTAL	14	315.7307			
Role Assumption	Between	1	25.3799	25.3799	0.881	0.3649
	Within	13	374.3569	28.7967		
	TOTAL	14	399.7368			
Consideration	Between	1	38.1417	38.1417	1.247	0.2843
	Within	13	397.5888	30.5838		
	TOTAL	14	435.7305			
Production Emphasis	Between	1	10.9762	10.9762	0.246	0.6280
	Within	13	579.4283	44.5714		
	TOTAL	14	590.4043			
Predictive Accuracy	Between	1	34.4065	34.4065	5.667	0.0333*
	Within	13	78.9285	6.0714		
	TOTAL	14	113.3350			

Table 21

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Integration	Between	1	3.8700	3.8700	0.601	0.4521
	Within	13	83.7321	6.4409		
	TOTAL	14	87.6021			
Superior Orientation	Between	1	68.5692	68.5692	1.684	0.2170
	Within	13	529.4281			
	TOTAL	14	597.9971			

* Significant at 0.05 level

Inter-Participant Descriptions: Analysis of Variance

Sub-problem 5 - LBDQ - Form X11 Overall. How do participants in recreation programmes describe the leadership of their leaders?

Each group of participants completed the LBDQ - Form XII. One-way analysis of variance for repeated measures was adopted to test the hypothesis:

> $H_0 5$: There is no significant difference between descriptions of leadership by participants in 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes, when measured by the LBDQ - Form XII.

Results. Table 22 displays the summary table of the analysis of variance. The F ratio of 393.05 is highly significant. The null hypothesis is rejected. There is a significant difference between descriptions of leadership by participants in 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes.

Discussion. One would expect 146 participants, as members of 15 different groups describing the leadership of 15 different leaders of 15 different recreation programmes, to describe the leadership behaviour of their leaders in a different fashion. Of interest, however, is how they described their leaders on each LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale as autonomous groups. Before this is shown, the overall participant scores on each sub-scale will be discussed, as presented in Appendix F.

For the sub-scale Representation two groups achieved the same score of 19.2 (Adult Swimming and Community Band). Two other groups achieved the same score of 19.7 for Representation (Macrame and Social Dancing). For the sub-scale Demand Reconciliation only two groups achieved the same score of 21.1 (Social Dancing and Dog Obedience). For all

Table 22

Summary of Analysis of Variance Between Participants' Descriptions of Leader Behaviour When Measured by the LBDQ - Form XII

Source	Sums of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Between	476.84798	14	34.06057		
Within	16390.07200	165	99.33377		
Between Measures	15826.35273	11	1438.75935	393.04837	0.000*
Residual	563.71927	154	3.66051		
Total	16866.91998	179	94.22860		

* Significant at 0.05 level

other sub-scales, all group scores were different. Much diversity prevailed thus accounting for the significant differences found between the groups.

The participants of the ladies' keep fit class scored their leader highest on six of the twelve sub-scales. They also scored her leadership behaviour so that their scores appeared eleven times in the top three positions. On the other hand, the participants of the golf class scored their leader least favourably on four of the sub-scales, while attaining a position in the bottom three for each sub-scale ten times. This result is in keeping with the manner in which the golf class leader described his own leadership.

Sub-problem 5(a)- LBDQ - Form X11 by Sub-Scale. One-way analysis of variance was utilized to address the problem of how each participant group described its leader's leadership behaviour over each LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale. Appropriate null hypotheses were developed for testing for each subscale as part of the overall response to sub-problem 5(a). As an example, the null hypothesis for the sub-scale Representation was stated as:

> $H_0 5(a)$: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by participant groups in 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Representation.

The Scheffé *a posteriori* test of significance was applied at the .15 level to identify those individual groups if any, which differed significantly on each sub-scale.

Results. To avoid ponderous repetition of reporting, the overall results are reported as succinctly as possible. Table 23

Table 23

Summary of Analysis of Variance for Participants' Descriptions
of Leader Behaviour When Measured by the LBDQ - Form XII

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Representation	Between	14	245.2978	17.5213	1.876	0.0345 *
	Within	131	1223.4439	9.3393		
	TOTAL	145	1468.7415			
Reconciliation	Between	14	241.4800	17.2486	2.547	0.0029 *
	Within	131	887.0884	6.7717		
	TOTAL	145	1128.5684			
Tolerance of Uncertainty	Between	14	962.3509	68.7393	2.693	0.0017 *
	Within	131	3343.8607	25.5257		
	TOTAL	145	4306.2109			
Persuasion	Between	14	788.5395	56.3242	2.242	0.0092 *
	Within	131	3290.9507	25.1217		
	TOTAL	145	4079.4902			
Structure	Between	14	1353.2065	96.6576	3.183	0.0003 *
	Within	131	3977.7843	30.3648		
	TOTAL	145	5330.9883			

Table 23

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Tolerance of Freedom	Between	14	1712.0594	122.2899	5.202	0.0000 *
	Within	131	3079.4424	23.5072		
	TOTAL	145	4791.5000			
Role Assumption	Between	14	696.9349	49.7811	2.065	0.0177 *
	Within	131	3158.5872	24.1113		
	TOTAL	145	3855.5220			
Consideration	Between	14	595.3562	42.5254	2.440	0.0044 *
	Within	131	2283.5768	17.4319		
	TOTAL	145	2878.9329			
Production Emphasis	Between	14	1871.2264	113.6590	4.019	0.0000 *
	Within	131	4356.7527	33.2576		
	TOTAL	145	6227.9766			
Predictive Accuracy	Between	14	386.0496	27.5750	3.557	0.0001 *
	Within	131	1015.4301	7.7514		
	TOTAL	145	1401.4795			

Table 23

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Integration	Between	14	344.9612	24.6401	2.864	0.0009 *
	Within	131	1127.2216	8.6047		
	TOTAL	145	1472.1829			
Superior Orientation	Between	14	937.2629	66.9473	2.552	0.0029 *
	Within	131	3436.5421	26.2331		
	TOTAL	145	4373.8047			

* Significant at the 0.05 level

consists of the summaries of analysis of variance over each sub-scale. All F ratios in the summary table are highly significant.

The null hypothesis pertaining to each LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale is rejected. Each group described the leadership of its respective leader significantly differently on the twelve LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales. Application of the Scheffe contrast test however reveals that significant differences were found between certain groups on only four sub-scales. For the sub-scale Initiating Structure, significant differences were detected between the participant group descriptions of leadership by the art class and the bridge class, and by the art class and the ladies keep fit class. For the sub-scale Tolerance of Freedom, significant differences were found between the group descriptions of the leadership of the bridge class, the ladies keep fit class, the painting class and the art class. Significant differences were found between the group descriptions of the leadership of the dog obedience class with each of the art and canoe construction classes on the sub-scale, Production Emphasis. Finally, for the sub-scale Predictive Accuracy, a significant difference was found between the group description of the leadership of the art class and the group description of the leadership of the bridge class.

Discussion. All participant groups described the leadership of their respective leaders differently over each of the twelve LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales. Significantly different descriptions of individual leader behaviour were found, however, by application of the Scheffé *a posteriori* test, within four sub-scales.

A perusal of the raw data for participants' descriptions on the sub-scale Initiating Structure (Appendix F) shows that the spread between the art class and the bridge and ladies keep fit classes is twelve points. The latter class members described their leader's leadership high on structure where the art class participants described the behaviour of their leader as very low on structure.

The art class described its leader the highest on Tolerance of Freedom. Other groups singled out as relatively high on describers of their leaders' leadership on Tolerance of Freedom where the painting class, and the bridge and keep fit classes. The leader of the dog obedience class was described low on Tolerance of Freedom, while the other four groups' descriptions of their leaders were high. For Production Emphasis, the dog obedience class was contrasted with the art class and the canoe construction class. The leader of the dog obedience class was described as being highly concerned with production output, whereas the art class and the canoe construction class leaders were described as being very much less inclined to push for production output.

For the sub-scale Predictive Accuracy, the art class was contrasted again with the bridge class. The score for the art class on this sub-scale was 16.5, the lowest, and the score for the bridge class was 23.1, the highest.

Leader-Participant Descriptions: Analysis of Variance

This next section reports the results of comparing leadership descriptions by recreation leaders and by their programme participants.

Sub-problem 6 deals with the overall comparison of descriptions of leadership by leaders and by their participants. Sub-problems 6(a), 6(b), 6(c), and 6(d) deal with the effects of experience and academic qualifications, or lack of them, in relation to descriptions of leadership by both leaders and their participants.

Sub-problem 6 - LBDQ - Form XII by Sub-Scales. This sub-problem was concerned with the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by leaders and by their programme participants.

Null hypotheses to be tested were developed for each sub-scale and analysed by one-way analysis of variance. As an example, the null hypothesis respecting the descriptions of leadership by leaders and by participants on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Representation was operationally stated as:

> $H_0$6i: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by leaders and the descriptions by the participants of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Representation.

Similar null-hypothesis to be tested were developed with appropriate wording for all other eleven LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales and were subjected to one-way analysis of variance procedures.

Results. Table 24 consists of the summaries of analysis of variance results for each LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale for the comparison between descriptions of leadership by leaders and by their participants. All null hypotheses are accepted as no F ratio is significant at the 0.05 level or less. There are no significant differences between the

Table 24

Summaries of the Results of the Analysis of Variance Between Leaders' and Participants'

Descriptions of Leader Behaviour When Measured by the LBDQ - Form X11

Per Sub-Scale

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Representation	Between	1	1.3524	1.3524	0.231	0.6346
	Within	28	164.0001	5.8575		
	TOTAL	29	165.3616			
Reconciliation	Between	1	7.9459	7.9459	1.202	0.2823
	Within	28	185.1400	6.6121		
	TOTAL	29	193.8590			
Tolerance of Uncertainty	Between	1	49.0124	49.0124	1.998	0.1686
	Within	28	686.9576	24.5342		
	TOTAL	29	735.9700			
Persuasion	Between	1	36.2984	36.2984	1.913	0.1775
	Within	28	531.1917	18.9711		
	TOTAL	29	567.4900			
Structure	Between	1	4.1807	4.1807	0.296	0.5909
	Within	28	395.8591	14.1378		
	TOTAL	29	400.0396			

Table 24

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Tolerance of Freedom	Between	1	0.3624	0.3624	0.021	0.8869
	Within	28	492.1421	17.5765		
	TOTAL	29	492.5044			
Role Assumption	Between	1	27.3783	27.3783	1.627	0.2127
	Within	28	471.2896	16.8318		
	TOTAL	29	498.6677			
Consideration	Between	1	26.3741	26.3741	1.487	0.2328
	Within	28	496.4865	17.7317		
	TOTAL	29	522.8606			
Production Emphasis	Between	1	0.0906	0.0906	0.003	0.9550
	Within	28	782.5884	27.9496		
	TOTAL	29	782.6787			
Predictive Accuracy	Between	1	0.0000	0.0000	0.000	1.0000
	Within	28	152.8597	5.4593		
	TOTAL	29	152.8597			

Table 24

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Integration	Between	1	1.7086	1.7086	0.391	0.5371
	Within	28	122.5051	4.3752		
	TOTAL	29	124.2137			
Superior Orientation	Between	1	33.8333	33.8333	1.363	0.2528
	Within	28	694.9904	24.8211		
	TOTAL	29	728.8235			

descriptions of leadership by leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes when measured on all sub-scales of the LBDQ - Form XII. In fact, on the sub-scale Predictive Accuracy the descriptions by leaders and by participants appear to be identical.

Discussion. While leaders by themselves described their leadership significantly differently and while programme participants by themselves described the leadership of their leaders significantly differently, it is of interest to note, that when the two groups are contrasted and their descriptions are compared over each sub-scale, they tend to agree, and are apparently identical on Predictive Accuracy. This result implies that though two groups have considerable differences within each group, there may not necessarily be discernible differences between the groups.

Sub-problem 6(a) - LBDQ - Form XII by Experienced by Sub-Scale. Sub-problem 6(a) was concerned with the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by experienced leaders and the descriptions of leadership by their programme participants.

One-way analysis of variance was used to test the specific null hypotheses pertaining to the "experience" characteristics of the leaders on each of the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales, using raw scores. As an example, the null hypothesis developed for the sub-scale Representation was operationally stated as:

$H_0$6(a)i: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by experienced leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in municipally-operated recreation programmes

> conducted by those experienced leaders when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Representation.

Similar null hypotheses to be tested were developed with appropriate wording for all other eleven LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales.

Results. Table 25 includes the summaries of analysis of variance for all sub-scales for sub-problem 6(a). No F ratios were found to be significant. Therefore, all null hypotheses developed to address sub-problem 6(a) must be accepted. There are no significant differences between the descriptions of leadership by experienced leaders and by their participants in municipally-operated recreation programmes conducted by those experienced leaders on twelve sub-scales, when measured by the LBDQ - Form XII.

Discussion. The results of the one-way analysis of variance used to test the null hypotheses relating to the effects of experience on the descriptions of leadership by experienced leaders and by their programme participants are not illuminating. Experienced leaders and their participants appear to describe the leadership of the leaders in a similar fashion in this study.

Sub-problem 6(b) - LBDQ - Form XII by Less-Experienced by Sub-Scale. Sub-problem 6(b) was concerned with the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by less-experienced leaders and the descriptions of leadership by their programme participants.

One-way analysis of variance was used to test the specific null hypotheses pertaining to the "less-experience" characteristics of the leaders on each of the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales, using raw

Table 25

Summaries of the Results of the Analysis of Variance Between Experienced Leaders' and Their Participants' Descriptions of Leader Behaviour When Measured by the LBDQ - Form XII Per Sub-Scale

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Representation	Between	1	0.0053	0.0053	0.001	0.9746
	Within	18	91.9712	5.1095		
	TOTAL	19	91.9765			
Reconciliation	Between	1	7.0922	7.0922	0.775	0.3902
	Within	18	164.6473	9.1471		
	TOTAL	19	171.7395			
Tolerance of Uncertainty	Between	1	28.2318	28.2318	0.798	0.3836
	Within	18	637.0387	35.3910		
	TOTAL	19	665.2703			
Persuasion	Between	1	22.9401	22.9401	0.907	0.3535
	Within	18	455.2635	25.2924		
	TOTAL	19	478.2036			
Structure	Between	1	0.2353	0.2353	0.017	0.8973
	Within	18	247.0728	13.7263		
	TOTAL	19	247.3080			

Table 25

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Tolerance of Freedom	Between	1	18.7548	18.7548	0.917	0.3508
	Within	18	367.9621	20.4423		
	TOTAL	19	386.7168			
Role Assumption	Between	1	13.5394	13.5394	0.602	0.4480
	Within	18	405.0889	22.5049		
	TOTAL	19	418.6282			
Consideration	Between	1	7.0088	7.0088	0.271	0.6092
	Within	18	466.0453	25.8914		
	TOTAL	19	473.0540			
Production Emphasis	Between	1	2.3668	2.3668	0.096	0.7605
	Within	18	444.8890	24.7160		
	TOTAL	19	447.2556			
Predictive Accuracy	Between	1	1.2283	1.2283	0.258	0.6179
	Within	18	85.8049	4.7669		
	TOTAL	19	87.0332			

Table 25

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Integration	Between	1	0.0076	0.0076	0.002	0.9675
	Within	18	80.1028	4.4502		
	TOTAL	19	80.1104			
Superior Orientation	Between	1	0.2390	0.2390	0.001	0.9757
	Within	18	450.2887	25.0160		
	TOTAL	19	450.3125			

scores. As an example, the null hypothesis developed for the subscale Representation was operationally stated as:

> $H_0$6(b)i: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by less-experienced leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in municipally-operated recreation programmes conducted by those less-experienced leaders when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Representation.

Similar null hypotheses were developed to be tested with appropriate wording for all other eleven LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales.

Results. Table 26 includes the summaries of analysis of variance for all sub-scales for sub-problem 6(b). The F ratios for the sub-scales Tolerance of Freedom (F=7.674), Consideration (F=9.132), and Superior Orientation (F=9.197) were found to be significant. The remaining nine F ratios were not found to be significant.

The null hypotheses developed for the purposes of addressing sub-problem 6(b) on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales Tolerance of Freedom, Consideration, and Superior Orientation must be rejected. The remaining nine null hypotheses must be accepted. There are significant differences between the descriptions of leadership by less experienced leaders and by their participants in municipally-operated recreation programmes conducted by those less-experienced leaders, when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales Tolerance of Freedom, Consideration, and Superior Orientation. There are no significant differences, however, between the descriptions of leadership by less-experienced leaders and their programme participants when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales Representation, Demand

Table 26

Summaries of the Results of the Analysis of Variance Between Less-Experienced Leaders' and Their Participants' Descriptions of Leader Behaviour When Measured by the LBDQ - Form X11 Per Sub-Scale

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Representation	Between	1	4.5983	4.5983	0.592	0.4636
	Within	8	62.0987	7.7623		
	TOTAL	9	66.6970			
Reconciliation	Between	1	1.2461	1.2461	0.553	0.4784
	Within	8	18.0287	2.2536		
	TOTAL	9	19.2748			
Tolerance of Uncertainty	Between	1	21.2868	21.2868	3.480	0.0991
	Within	8	48.9404	6.1176		
	TOTAL	9	70.2272			
Persuasion	Between	1	13.4097	13.4097	1.526	0.2518
	Within	8	70.3211	8.7901		
	TOTAL	9	83.7308			
Structure	Between	1	8.2112	8.2112	1.131	0.3186
	Within	8	58.0829	7.2604		
	TOTAL	9	66.2941			

Table 26

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Tolerance of Freedom	Between	1	51.5742	51.5742	7.674	0.0243*
	Within	8	53.7673	6.7209		
	TOTAL	9	105.3415			
Role Assumption	Between	1	14.8840	14.8840	1.835	0.2126
	Within	8	64.8920	8.1115		
	TOTAL	9	79.7759			
Consideration	Between	1	26.5363	26.5363	9.132	0.0165*
	Within	8	23.2473	2.9059		
	TOTAL	9	49.7836			
Production Emphasis	Between	1	7.3960	7.3960	0.382	0.5537
	Within	8	154.9080	19.3635		
	TOTAL	9	162.3040			
Predictive Accuracy	Between	1	2.5691	2.5691	0.773	0.4049
	Within	8	26.5839	3.3230		
	TOTAL	9	29.1530			

Table 26

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Integration	Between	1	4.5833	4.5833	1.054	0.3346
	Within	8	34.7883	4.3485		
	TOTAL	9	39.3716			
Superior Orientation	Between	1	96.6585	96.6585	9.197	0.0162*
	Within	8	84.0825	10.5103		
	TOTAL	9	180.7410			

* Significant at 0.05 level

Reconciliation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Persuasion, Initiating Structure, Role Assumption, Production Emphasis, Predictive Accuracy, and Integration.

Discussion. In this study, the effect of less- experience for the leader appears to differentiate between descriptions of leadership by those less-experienced leaders and their programme participants on such leader behaviours as tolerating group member freedom of action, being considerate, and having influence with superiors. Perusal of the raw sub-scale data (Appendix E and Appendix F) reveals that the less-experienced leaders describe their behaviour less favourably than did their participants.

Sub-problem 6(c) - LBDQ - Form X11 by Qualified by Sub-Scale. Sub-problem 6(c) was concerned with the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by qualified leaders and the descriptions of leadership by their programme participants.

One-way analysis of variance was used to test the specific null hypotheses pertaining to the "qualification" (training) characteristics of the leaders on each of the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales, using raw scores. As an example, the null hypothesis developed for the sub-scale Representation was operationally stated as:

> $H_o6(c)i$: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by qualified leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in municipally-operated recreation programmes conducted by those qualified leaders, when measured on the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale Representation.

Similar null hypotheses to be tested were developed with appropriate wording for all other eleven LBDQ - Form X11 sub- scales.

Results. Table 27 includes the summaries of analysis of variance for all sub-scales for sub-problem 6(c). No significant F ratios were found. Therefore, all null hypotheses developed to address sub-problem 6(c) must be accepted. There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by qualified leaders and by their participants in those recreation programmes conducted by those qualified leaders when measured by all twelve LBDQ - Form X1l sub-scales.

Discussion. In this study, leader academic qualifications do not act to differentiate between the descriptions of leadership by qualified leaders and by their programme participants.

Sub-problem 6(d) - LBDQ - Form X1l by Less-Qualified by Sub-Scale. Sub-problem 6(d) was concerned with the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by less-qualified leaders snf descriptions of leadership by their programme participants.

One-way analysis of variance was used to test the specific null hypotheses pertaining to the "less-experience" (less training) characteristics of the leaders on each of the LBDQ - Form X1l sub-scales. For example, the null hypothesis developed for the sub-scale Representation was operationally stated as:

> H_o6(d)i: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by less-qualified leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in municipally-operated recreation programmes conducted by those less-qualified leaders, when measured by the LBDQ - Form X1l sub-scale Representation.

Similar null hypotheses were developed to be tested with appropriate wording for all other eleven LBDQ - Form X1l sub-scales.

Results. Table 28 includes the summaries of analysis of variance

Table 27

Summaries of the Results of the Analysis of Variance Between Qualified Leaders' and Their Participants' Descriptions of Leader Behaviour When Measured by the LBDQ - Form XII Per Sub-Scale

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Representation	Between	1	0.1607	0.1607	0.025	0.8759
	Within	12	75.7914	6.3160		
	TOTAL	13	75.9521			
Reconciliation	Between	1	3.2086	3.2086	0.293	0.5985
	Within	12	131.6286	10.9690		
	TOTAL	13	134.8372			
Tolerance of Uncertainty	Between	1	24.5294	24.5294	0.564	0.4670
	Within	12	521.5148	43.4596		
	TOTAL	13	546.0439			
Persuasion	Between	1	13.1766	13.1766	0.424	0.5270
	Within	12	372.5931	31.0494		
	TOTAL	13	385.7695			
Structure	Between	1	0.0158	0.0158	0.001	0.9797
	Within	12	281.3738	23.4478		
	TOTAL	13	281.3894			

Table 27

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Tolerance of Freedom	Between	1	1.3472	1.3472	0.056	0.8167
	Within	12	287.8193	23.9849		
	TOTAL	13	289.1663			
Role Assumption	Between	1	31.6495	31.6495	1.071	0.3212
	Within	12	354.6919	29.5576		
	TOTAL	13	386.3413			
Consideration	Between	1	40.6298	40.6298	1.299	0.2766
	Within	12	375.3474	31.2789		
	TOTAL	13	415.9771			
Production Emphasis	Between	1	8.3352	8.3352	0.398	0.5401
	Within	12	251.4628	20.9552		
	TOTAL	13	259.7979			
Predictive Accuracy	Between	1	10.5814	10.5814	1.804	0.2041
	Within	12	70.3898	5.8658		
	TOTAL	13	80.9712			

Table 27

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Integration	Between	1	0.8502	0.8502	0.149	0.7063
	Within	12	68.4821	5.7068		
	TOTAL	13	69.3322			
Superior Orientation	Between	1	0.0645	0.0645	0.004	0.9523
	Within	12	207.0035	17.2503		
	TOTAL	13	207.0680			

Table 28

Summaries of the Results of the Analysis of Variance Between Less-Qualified Leaders' and Their Participants' Descriptions of Leader Behaviour When Measured by the LBDQ - Form X11 Per Sub-Scale

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Representation	Between	1	3.8710	3.8710	0.635	0.4388
	Within	14	85.3257	6.0947		
	TOTAL	15	89.1967			
Reconciliation	Between	1	4.7766	4.7766	1.296	0.2740
	Within	14	51.5826	3.6845		
	TOTAL	15	56.3592			
Tolerance of Uncertainty	Between	1	24.5510	24.5510	2.146	0.1651
	Within	14	160.1866	11.4419		
	TOTAL	15	184.7376			
Persuasion	Between	1	23.5702	23.5702	2.110	0.1684
	Within	14	156.3750	11.1696		
	TOTAL	15	179.9452			
Structure	Between	1	8.5117	8.5117	1.090	0.3142
	Within	14	109.3446	7.8103		
	TOTAL	15	117.8563			

Table 28

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Tolerance of Freedom	Between	1	0.0638	0.0638	0.005	0.9473
	Within	14	196.8601	14.0614		
	TOTAL	15	196.9239			
Role Assumption	Between	1	3.6191	3.6191	0.562	0.4657
	Within	14	90.0880	6.4349		
	TOTAL	15	93.7072			
Consideration	Between	1	1.1447	1.1447	0.194	0.6663
	Within	14	82.6041	5.9003		
	TOTAL	15	83.7488			
Production Emphasis	Between	1	9.7965	9.7965	0.267	0.6132
	Within	14	512.9044	36.6360		
	TOTAL	15	522.7009			
Predictive Accuracy	Between	1	9.4425	9.4425	2.763	0.1187
	Within	14	47.8518	3.4180		
	TOTAL	15	57.2942			

Table 28

(Continued)

Sub-Scale	Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Probability
Integration	Between	1	7.0356	7.0356	2.062	0.1729
	Within	14	47.7585	3.4113		
	TOTAL	15	54.7941			
Superior Orientation	Between	1	67.2802	67.2802	2.246	0.1562
	Within	14	419.4080	29.9577		
	TOTAL	15	486.6882			

for all sub-scales for sub-problem 6(d). No F ratios were found to be significant. Therefore, all null hypotheses developed to address sub-problem 6(d) must be accepted. There is no sigificant difference between the descriptions of leadership by less-qualified leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in municipally-operated recreation programmes conducted by those less-qualified leaders, when measured on the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales.

Discussion. In this study, the fact that leaders have less academic qualifications than others does not differentiate between the manner in which those less-qualified leaders describe their leadership and the manner in which their programme participants describe the leadership of those leaders.

Summary of Leader-Participant Descriptions: Analysis of Variance. Table 29 includes the results of the analysis of variance employed to address sub-problems 6(a), 6(b), 6(c), and 6(d). The table consists of F ratios pertaining to each LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale for each sub-problem. The results of the one-way analysis of variance procedure used to test overall null hypotheses relating to the effects of experience, or lack of it, and academic qualifications, or lack of them, with the purpose of differentiating between leaders' descriptions of leadership and descriptions of leadership by their programme participants were not particularly discerning, except for the case of less-experienced leaders in which tolerance of freedom, consideration, and superior orientation leadership behaviours were described differently by leaders and participants. Perusal of the raw sub-scale data (Appendices E and F) reveals that the spread of sub-scale scores between leaders and

Table 29

Summary of F Tables Pertaining to Sub-Problems 6(a), 6(b), 6(c), and 6(d)

LBDQ Form XII Sub-Scale	Sub-Problem 6(a)	Sub-Problem 6(b)	Sub-Problem 6(c)	Sub-Problem 6(d)
Representation	0.001	0.592	0.025	0.635
Demand Reconciliation	0.775	0.553	0.293	1.296
Tolerance of Uncertainty	0.798	3.480	0.564	2.146
Persuasion	0.907	1.526	0.424	2.110
Initiating Structure	0.017	1.431	0.001	1.090
Tolerance of Freedom	0.917	7.674*	0.056	0.005
Role Assumption	0.682	1.835	1.071	0.562
Consideration	0.271	9.132*	1.299	0.194
Production Emphasis	0.096	0.382	0.398	0.267
Predictive Accuracy	0.258	0.773	1.804	2.763
Integration	0.002	1.054	0.149	2.062
Superior Orientation	0.001	9.197*	0.004	2.246

* Significant at 0.05 level.

participants was not overly large. Over most sub-scales, and found in the experienced, less-experienced, qualified, and less-qualified leaders' groups, where some leaders tended to describe their sub-scale behaviour higher than did their participants, other leaders described their sub-scale behaviour less favourably than did their participants.

Table 30 has been devised to depict these occurrences. Table 30 displays the different relationships between the leaders' raw sub-scale scores and their participants' group sub-scale scores by programme. The "L" indicates that the leader's score for that particular sub-scale was "lower" in numerical value than his or her programme participants' group sub-scale score. The "H" indicates that the leader's sub-scale score was "higher" numerically than was his or her participants' group sub-scale score. The figures in parentheses refer to the numerical difference between the leader's and his or her participants' group sub-scale score, either lower or higher. The asterisks, or absence of them, next to the recreation programme name refer to whether the leader of the particular programme was experienced, less-experienced, qualified and/or less-qualified according to the criteria employed in this study. It will be noted in Table 30 that, for the cases involving the sub-scales Tolerance of Freedom, Consideration, and Superior Orientation for the less-experienced leader programmes (macrame, social dancing, jive and disco dance, canoe construction, art, and golf), each leader described his or her leadership considerably less favourably than did his or her participants. The overall spread between the leaders' scores and their participants' scores on the three sub-scales in question accounts for

Table 30

Relationships Between Leaders' and Participant Groups' Raw LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scale Scores

Recreation Programme	SUB - SCALE 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Macrame(*) (**)	L(1.7)	L(0.9)	H(0.5)	L(7.6)	L(2.6)	L(6.8)	L(2.0)	L(4.4)	L(8.4)	L(3.4)	H(0.4)	L(8.8)
Bridge	H(1.3)	L(5.7)	L(3.6)	H(1.9)	L(4.6)	L(0.2)	H(4.7)	L13.5)	H(4.0)	H(0.9)	L(3.1)	L(1.3)
Ladies Keep Fit (*)	L(3.8)	L(4.9)	L(3.8)	L(8.0)	L(2.4)	L(4.2)	L(1.9)	L(0.8)	H(0.8)	L(1.5)	L(0.4)	L(8.9)
Social Dancing (**)	L(4.7)	L(1.1)	L(5.9)	L(2.7)	L(4.6)	L(7.0)	L(5.7)	L(6.1)	L(2.9)	L(0.3)	L(3.1)	L(6.8)
Adult Swimming (*)	H(1.8)	H(1.6)	H(2.3)	L(1.6)	H(2.1)	H(3.0)	H(0.7)	H(2.5)	L(1.5)	H(1.9)	L(1.7)	H(5.1)
Painting	H(4.5)	H(1.0)	H(4.4)	H(1.1)	H(5.2)	H(5.2)	L(0.3)	H(4.5)	L(4.5)	H(2.4)	H(3.2)	H(5.2)
Jive and Disco Dance (*) (**)	H(3.2)	L(1.6)	H(0.3)	L(2.5)	L(1.7)	L(2.4)	L(3.7)	L(3.6)	L(3.2)	L(0.2)	L(1.7)	L(3.0)
Women's Physical Culture (*)	L(4.6)	H(0.6)	L(2.8)	L(2.9)	L(5.9)	H(6.7)	L(6.0)	H(2.7)	L(9.0)	L(0.8)	L(0.3)	H(5.1)
Community Band	H(1.8)	L(7.1)	L(7.3)	L(6.7)	H(1.5)	L(5.9)	L(11.4)	L(9.6)	H(8.8)	H(4.5)	Same	H(4.9)
Canoe Construction (*) (**)	L(4.7)	H(1.7)	L(7.9)	H(2.2)	L(2.6)	L(4.1)	H(3.0)	L(2.9)	Same	L(4.7)	L(5.7)	L(13.9)
Art (**)	H(1.2)	L(2.6)	L(2.6)	L(1.0)	H(2.4)	L(2.4)	L(3.8)	H0.7)	H(5.9)	H(3.5)	H(3.3)	H(1.4)
Swim Instruction	L(0.5)	H(4.2)	H(7.0)	H(4.5)	H(3.4)	H(4.8)	H(0.8)	H(8.6)	H(1.3)	H(5.7)	H(4.0)	H(1.9)
Golf (**)	L(2.1)	H(3.6)	L(1.5)	L(10.7)	L(5.5)	H(1.1)	L(5.9)	(5.7)	L(3.8)	L(0.5)	L(0.9)	L(4.4)
Lifesaving (*)	L(0.9)	L(2.1)	L(5.3)	L(2.4)	H(0.9)	H(1.2)	H(1.9)	H(0.1)	H(3.8)	H(0.8)	L(1.4)	H(1.8)
Dog Obedience (*)	H(2.9)	L(3.1)	L(4.1)	H(3.4)	H(0.5)	H(9.6)	H(0.4)	H(2.1)	H(5.0)	L(4.4)	H(0.2)	Same

Sub-Scale Code: 1 - Representation; 2 - Demand Reconciliation; 3 - Tolerance of Uncertainty; 4 - Persuasion; 5 - Initiating Structure; 6 - Tolerance of Freedom; 7 - Role Assumption; 8 - Consideration; 9 - Production Emphasis; 10 - Predictive Accuracy; 11 - Integration; 12 - Superior Orientation.

(*): Less-qualified
(**): Less-experienced
H: Leader's sub-scale score higher than participant group's sub-scale score.
L: Leader's sub-scale score lower than participant group's sub-scale score.
( ): Difference between leader's sub-scale score and participant group's sub-scale score.

these F ratios being significant. Similarly, use of Table 30 aids in explaining why no other significant F ratios were produced from these data pertaining to sub-problem 6(c), for example, and addressing the results found for the programmes led by qualified leaders (bridge, social dancing, painting, community band, art, swim instruction, and golf) on the sub-scale Initiating Structure, three leaders described their initiating structure behaviour lower than did their participants (bridge, L -4.6; social dancing, L -4.6; golf, L -5.5). The four other leaders described their behaviour on the same sub-scale higher than did their participants (painting, H -5.2; community band, H -1.5; art, H -2.4; swim instruction, H -3.4). The numerical difference between the seven leaders' and their participants' scores was 14.7 - 12.5 = 2.2. Similar results occur throughout other sub-scales. This nullifying effect apparently produces non-significance. Similar nullifying effects are found which explain the lack of significance when experienced leaders and their participants were compared (sub-problem 6a). The lack of significance with less-qualified leaders and their participants (sub-problem 6(d) is due, also, to this nullifying effect.

Summary

The Leaders' behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form X11 (LBDQ - Form X11) derived from non-recreation leadership research was used to gather data for the empirical aspect of this study. It was found in preliminary investigations (Chapter 4) that the use of the LBDQ - Form X11 appears to be as suitable for describing leadership empirically in the recreation field as it has been in other fields. The sub-scale Consideration appeared not to be a strong factor in this study, whereas Representation, Initiating Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Production Emphasis, and

Superior Orientation were.

The characteristics of the 15 municipally-operated recreation programmes selected for study and the demographic characteristics of the leaders of those programmes were examined. Step-wise multiple regression statistical procedures were utilized to compare the relationships between programme and leader characteristics in combination and the resultant descriptions of the leadership of the leaders by both leaders and their programme participants.

The programmes of longer duration were led by leaders who had accumulated years of employment experience. These leaders tended to emphasize production output but described themselves as having little ability to reconcile conflicting organizational demands and as being able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset.

The majorty of male leaders had received university level education whereas the majorty of female leaders had not.

The older leaders were inclined to be associated with years of accumulated employment experience and had received specific training in the programmes they were leading from various places other than in the Province of Alberta. Leaders who had accumulated only short periods of casual employment experience were described by their participants as not being able to clarify role expectations, emphasize production output, predict outcomes accurately, maintain a closely-knit organization, or have influence with their superiors. However, leaders who had accumulated several years of casual employment experience were described by themselves and their participants as being able to press for production output, although according to their participants, they did not allow their participants much scope for initiative or independent action.

The leaders who had accumulated seasonal employment experience regarded themselves as able to maintain a closely-knit group, clarify role expectations and allow their charges scope for initiative and action. Their participants described them as being able to reconcile conflicting organizational demands. These leaders had accumulated their seasonal employment experiences in the same types of programmes they were conducting when examined by this study.

The leaders who claimed to have had accumulated years of permanent employment experience described themselves as lacking in the ability to reconcile conflicting organizational demands, to regard the comfort, status, and well-being of their participants, to tolerate uncertainty or delay without upset, or to actively exercise the leadership role.

Leaders with small amounts of accumulated experience in the programmes being conducted described themselves as able to allow their participants scope for initiative and action and to be able to reconcile conflicting organizational demands. The participants' descriptions of these leaders supported their leaders' descriptions regarding tolerance of member freedom of action.

The leaders who had accumulated years of experience in the types of programmes they were conducting received their training from elsewhere than in the Province of Alberta and described themselves as able to clarify role expectations and to relate positively with their superiors. Leaders who had received specific training for the programmes they were conducting saw themselves as being persuasive as well as able to initiate structure in their group.

Those leaders who had received their specific programme training outside of Alberta described themselves as able to initiate structure, tolerate member freedom of action, and influence their superiors.

Higher academic qualifications were very much associated with the ability to predict outcomes and influence superiors when the leaders described their own behaviour.

The leaders who had accumulated large amounts of casual employment experience (in weeks) were not favourably regarded by their participants in such behaviours as role definition, pushing for productive output, exhibiting foresight, integrating the group, or being influential with their superiors.

The leaders with accumulated seasonal employment experience in similar programmes to those they were conducting were described by their participants as able to reconcile conflicting demands and able to tolerate group member freedom of action.

Leaders and participants agreed on the descriptions of such leader behaviours as pushing for production, as being persuasive and as being able to retain the leadership in their own hands. Task orientation and group orientation were discernible types of leadership behaviour in this study.

Experience, age, and sex of the leader appeared to be the best predictors of the leaders' scores on the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales Representation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Integration. These same demographic characteristics of leaders were reasonable predictors of the participants' descriptions of their leaders' behaviour on similar sub-scales including Production Emphasis. Training and academic qualifications were not influential in contributing to high leadership ratings.

The leaders overall tended to describe their leadership differently. The programme participant groups also tended to describe the leadership of their leaders differently. When the leaders'and the participants' descriptions of leadership were compared overall on each LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale, no significant differences were detected.

Experienced leaders and qualified leaders described their leadership similarly to the way their participants saw them behaving. Less-qualified leaders described their leadership in a similar fashion to their programme participants' description of leader behaviour. Lack of experience, however, seems to have an effect on the descriptions of a leaders' Tolerance of Freedom, Consideration, and Superior Orientation. Less-experienced leaders tended to describe themselves less favourably than did their participants on these measures of leadership.

Chapter 6

COMPARISON OF LITERATURE REVIEWS AND EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

This chapter consists of a comparison between the results of the review of non-recreation leadership literature (Chapter 2), the results of the review of recreation leadership literature (Chapter 3), and the results of the empirical investigation (Chapter 5) belonging to this study. The comparison is in response to sub-problem 7, which was phrased as: How do the findings of the review of non-recreation leadership literature, the review of recreation leadership literature, and the empirical investigation of this study compare?

The comparison is made by discussing the findings from the literature reviews and the empirical investigation in terms of definitions of leadership, emphasis on the individual, emphasis on the group, emphasis on the environment, sex, age, training, experience, and skills. Where deemed appropriate by this study, the findings of the empirical investigation regarding certain sub-scales of the LBDQ-Form XII which apply to the individual, the group, the environment, training, and experience will be compared with appropriate aspects of the literature reviews.

Definitions of Leadership

Use was made of Stogdill's (1974:7-16) categories of leadership definitions in reviewing recreation leadership literature (Chapter 3) and non-recreation leadership literature (Chapter 2). The eleven categories are: 1) as a focus of group processes, 2) as personality and its effects, 3) as the art of inducing compliance, 4) as the exercise of influence, 5) as an act or behaviour, 6) as a form of persuasion, 7) as a power relation, 8) as an instrument of goal achievement, 9) as an effect of interaction, 10) as a differentiated role, and 11) as the initiation of structure. Several definitions found in Stogdill's categories correspond, to some extent, to definitions found in the review of recreation leadership literature conducted as part of this study. Table 1 (Chapter 2) consists of leadership definitions found in the non-recreation leadership literature which fit Stogdill's categories. Table 5 (Chapter 3) consists of leadership definitions found during the review of recreation leadership literature which tend to fit Stogdill's categories. The definitions from both sets of literature are not identical. However, some definitions make similar statements. For example, in the "group processes" category, the 1956 definition of leadership by the National Recreation Association corresponds to definitions by Bernard (1927) and Redl (1942). All three definitions regard the leader as a central figure in the group who enables the group to pursue its goals. In the "personality" category, McLean (1962) identified recreation leadership with the essential or desirable qualities of an individual as did Bingham (1927) and Kilbourne (1935). Kraus in 1966 and Tead in 1929 both considered that a combination of qualities in an individual enabled that individual to help others achieve goals. Kraus and Bates (1975) hinted at recreation leadership as being the art of inducing compliance, whereas Allport (1924), Stewart

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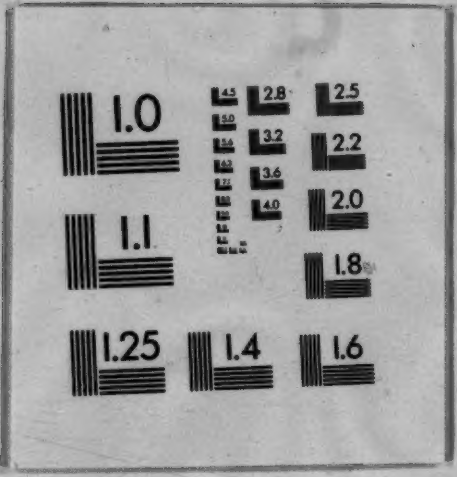
1.0
4.5
5.0
5.6
2.8
3.2
3.6
4.0
2.5
2.2
2.0
1.1
1.8
1.25
1.4
1.6

(1927), Bundel (1930), Allen (1958), and Bennis (1959) were less subtle. Shivers (1963, 1971) and Jensen (1977) regarded leadership as the exercise of influence. Several non-recreation leadership writers agreed (Cartwright, 1965; Haiman, 1951; Hollander and Julian, 1968; Katz and Kahn, 1966; Nash, 1929; Shartle, 1956; Stogdill, 1950; Taunenbaum, Weschler and Massarik, 1961; and Tead, 1935). The Journal of Health Physical Education and Recreation (1960) defined recreation leadership as another form of educational opportunity in which an individual may act to benefit himself and others. Shartle (1951) and Fiedler (1967) regarded leadership as particular acts regarding others. Hemphill (1949) regarded leadership as behaviour. Leadership for Schenk (1928) was seen as a form of persuasion. Whitlock (1963) and Smiddy (1956) regarded recreation leadership in the same vein. Shivers (1963), Tillman (1973), and Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) all regarded recreation leadership as a power relation. In the non-recreation leadership literature, Gerth and Mills (1953), Warriner (1955), Raven and French (1958) and Janda (1960) saw leadership relating to the power of the individual. Several writers of recreation leadership literature regarded leadership as an instrument of goal achievement (Douglass, 1956a; Rodney and Ford, 1971; Danford, 1964) as did Cowley (1928), Davis (1942), Davis (1962), Knickerbocker (1948), Cattell (1951), Urwick (1953), and Bellows (1959) in the non-recreation leadership literature. Harbin (1940) adhered to the doctrine of recreation leadership as an effect of interaction, as did Bogardus (1929), Pigors (1935), Anderson (1940), and Merton (1969) in the non-recreation leadership literature. No recreation leadership definitions were found which belonged precisely to Stogdill's categories of "leadership as a differentiated role" and "leadership as the initiation of structure", although some referred to similar concepts. Harbin's (1940) definition indicated the different roles a leader may have during his tenure, and Kraus and Bates' (1975) definition pointed out the organizing and directing responsibilities of recreation leaders. Overall, the conceptions of leadership held by writers of recreation leadership literature are somewhat similar to those held by writers of other leadership literature.

Emphasis on the individual.

Leadership as emphasis on the individual was discussed in both reviews of literature (Chapter 2 and Chapter 3) with reference to trait theories, behavioural theories, and leadership style.

The development of trait theories of leadership was instigated by early twentieth century psychologists who attempted to find commonality among a variety of psychological characteristics of leaders. Their search appeared to be fruitless as very few characteristics were found to be common among leaders. Stogdill (1948), after an exhaustive review of leadership characteristics, is credited with sounding the death knell for trait theory in the non-recreation leadership literature. Disenchantment is being experienced with other theories of leadership in present-day literature. Researchers have begun to reconsider the unimportance of "the central figure" and some attempts have been made to revive trait theory.

Interest in leaders' characteristics is evident throughout the recreation leadership literature and persists to the present day. Leader characteristics found in the non-recreation leadership literature, as identified by Stogdill (1948, 1970), are contrasted with leader characteristics found in this study's review of recreation leadership literature in Table 31. It will be seen that the two lists of leader characteristics correspond. Heavy emphasis seems to have been placed on normative characteristics for recreation leaders. The concern for congeniality between recreation leaders and their group members is evident.

Behavioural theories relate to what a leader does, rather than what he is. Behavioural theories of leadership developed when the investigation of leader characteristics failed to produce consistent results which would aid in the development of theory. According to the review of non-recreation leadership literature, the main efforts in the development of behavioural theories of leadership were shared by the Ohio State University (1945) and Michigan University (1950). Ohio State discovered the leader behaviours of "Consideration" and "Initiation of Structure" to be independent factors. A successful leader behaved "high" on both factors. The Michigan people isolated "personal-orientation" and "production-orientation". The leader who emphasized production output as well as concern for people was regarded as the superior leader. Many manager/supervisor workshops were developed around the themes of considerateness and production output throughout a variety of organizations. Organizational theorists, however, were concerned about the concentration of effort toward the human element as opposed to other possible variables which might have accounted for leadership effectiveness (Perrow, 1972).

According to the review of recreation leadership literature, writers of recreation leadership literature regard leadership as

Table 31

Common Leadership Traits

Stogdill Review (1948, 1970)	Recreation Review
Adaptability	Flexibility Social Adaptability
Appearance	Neat Appearance Personal attractiveness Appearance, care
Biosocial activity (games, adventure)	Ability to organize and operate programmes Good sportsmanship Knowledge of skills
Dominance	Aggressive (in the nice sense of the word) Cannot be intimidated
Emotional control	Maturity
Fluency of speech	Good communication Pleasant voice
Initiative, persistence, ambition	Initiative Industry Not satisfied with the status quo Productive energy Personal ambition Stick-to-it-iveness Self-starter
Insight	Ability to present ideas Creativity Keen perceptions
Integrity and conviction	Integrity Courage of convictions High moral standards
Intelligence	Intelligence Retentive memory
Judgement and decision	Judgement Good judgement Open minded Objectivity

Table 31 (Continued)

Stogdill Review (1948, 1970)	Recreation Review
Knowledge	Knowledge Knowledge of skills Seeks to be knowledgeable Have a philosophy of recreation
Originality	Creativity Ingenuity
Physique, energy, health	Energy Physical well-being Physically fit Zest for Life
Responsibility	Responsibility
Scholarship	Broad interest in liberal education
Self confidence	Ability to understand himself Confidence Dignity Self-reliant
Social activity and mobility	Social adaptability Broad interest in society Dedicated Desire to serve people
Social skills (sociability, diplomacy)	Ability to get along with others Democratic attitude and procedure Empathy Friendly Fair Help members fit into group Human-ness Inspirational for group activity Interest in group - not self Interest in society Like people Love for people Nice supply of personality Pleasing personality Skill in interpersonal relationships Skill in working with people Tact Tolerance Understanding Warmth Wisdom with people

consisting of interpersonal behaviours. They prefer a "democratic" approach to leadership. The leader's ability to communicate effectively is also stressed.

Effective organizational leadership has to be concerned with production output as well as the human element, otherwise the organization may cease to exist. Recreation leaders however, are primarily concerned with satisfying the leisure needs of their programme participants. People-orientation and democratic processes would appear to be most appropriate leadership behaviours in the recreation service field.

The manner in which a leader behaves has received considerable attention from writers of both sets of literature. Cited in the non-recreation leadership literature are numerous examples of leadership style in which the style of the leader is equated with the name given to the style: "executive", "professional", "crowd comptroller", "infusive", "bureaucrat", and "charismatic". Two classical examples of more sophisticated attempts to examine leadership style also are mentioned. The first is Lippitt and White's (1943) study comparing "democratic", "authoritarian", and laissey-faire" styles of leadership. The second concerns Fiedler's (1967) high-LPC person (people-oriented) and low LPC person (task-oriented) styles of leadership.

Writers of recreation leadership literature appeared to welcome Lippitt and White's study as it supported their concern for a "democratic" style of leadership. Fiedler's work was mentioned, but moreso under the headings of "situstion" and "contingency" theories. Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) have related some "behavioural" theories to leadership style. They related Lippitt and White's democratic style to McGregor's

(1960) Theory "Y" and the "authoritarian" style to McGregor's Theory "X". They also considered a 9,1 style on Blake and Mouton's (1964) Managerial Grid to be similar to an authoritarian style, a 7,7 to a 9,9 style of management on the "grid" was akin to the "democratic" approach, and the 1,1 style tended toward "laissez-faire" leadership. Sessoms and Stevenson recommended a "democratic" style for leadership in the recreation field.

The LBDQ - Form XII was utilized in this study to gather data pertaining to municipal recreation leadership at the functional level. Certain LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales lend themselves to describing the characteristics, the behaviour, and the style of the individual leader. Persuasion, according to Stogdill (1974:143) refers to the individual leader's use of persuasion and argument effectively and exhibiting strong convictions. Consideration and Initiating Structure were dominant in the non-recreation leadership literature as important leadership behaviours or styles. Consideration refers to the individual leader's regard for the comfort, status, well-being, and contributions of his followers behaviour which is encouraged by writers of recreation leadership literature. The leader who initiates structure defines his role clearly and clarifies role expectations. Role assumption refers to actively exercising the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others. Production Emphasis refers to applying pressure for productive output.

In this study, persuasiveness, as described by the leaders, was significantly and positively related to the leaders descriptions of themselves as being able to clarify role expectations, to allow followers scope for initiative and action, and to exercise the role of leadership.

Also, persuasiveness was related significantly and positively to the participants' descriptions of the leaders' ability to speak and act as representatives of their groups, to be persuasive, and to actively exercise the role of leadership. Those leaders who described themselves as being persuasive appeared to be recognized as such by their participants.

The leaders' description of themselves on the ability to clearly define roles and clarify role expectations were significantly and positively related to their descriptions of themselves on the ability to speak and act as representatives of their groups, to be persuasive, to predict future outcomes accurately, and to maintain closely-knit organizations. The leaders' persuasiveness was significantly and positively related to the participants' descriptions of the leaders' ability to reconcile conflicting organizational demands, to be persuasive and to actively exercise the leadership role. Those leaders who regarded themselves as behaving persuasively were described by their participants as behaving in a similar manner.

The leaders' considerate behaviour was significantly and positively related to the leaders' descriptions of their ability to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety and upset, to allow followers scope for initiative and action, and to maintain closely-knit organizations. Also, leader consideration was related significantly and positively to the participants' description of the leaders' ability to actively exercise the role of leadership.

Consideration in this study, however, was not found to be a strong factor but more of an underlying one, closely related to the sub-scales Persuasion, Initiating Structure, Predictive Accuracy and Superior Orientation.

Role Assumption, or retention of the leadership role in the leaders hands, in this study, was significantly and positively related to such other leader behaviours as being tolerant of uncertainty and being persuasive. The leaders' descriptions on leadership role retention was significantly and positively related also to the participants' descriptions of leader behaviour regarding the reconciliation of conflicting organizational demands and retention of the leadership role. Those leaders who considered themselves as retaining the leader's role were perceived by their participants as behaving in that fashion.

Pushing for productive output was a leader behaviour which related significantly and negatively to the leaders' descriptions of the ability to reconcile conflicting organizational demands and the ability to tolerate uncertainty and postponement in this study. Pushing for productive output by leaders correlated significantly and positively with the participants' descriptions of leaders pushing for productive output. From the results of this study, Production Emphasis appears to an independent sub-scale. The behaviours associated with Production Emphasis appear, also, to be opposed to those leader behaviours associated with the sub-scales, Tolerance of Uncertainty and Demand Reconciliation.

Leadership behaviours pertaining to the individual appear to be in two groups. The first group involves behaviours which are concerned with leading, organizing, and caring for group members. The second group contains one category only: pushing for productive output.

Emphasis on the Group

Leadership as emphasis on the group was discussed in this study's reviews of literature with reference to group process theories, group interaction theories, and the organization as a group.

Group process theories regard leadership as the product of group members' behaviours which enable the group to proceed toward goal attainment. Instrumental in the development of group process theories was Bales (1950). Bales identified the "socio-emotional" and "instrumental" dimensions of groups. Benne and Sheats (1948) considered these dimensions as consisting of particular behaviours from different group members. Those behaviours belonging to the "socio-emotional" dimension became known as "group building and maintenance functions", and those behaviours which contributed to the instrumental dimension were labelled as "group task functions". Knowles and Knowles (1972) identified certain behaviours which did not contribute to goal achievement or help to maintain group cohesiveness. These behaviours became known as "self-centred" behaviours as their only purpose appeared to be that of serving a particular individual's needs. Knowles and Knowles also recognized that "outside forces" influenced the behaviour of group members which, in turn, could influence the rate of the group's progress towards its goals. These forces had to do with the physical make-up of the environment in which the group worked, the socio-economic and educational level of individuals, and individual psychological differences. The various behaviours and forces acting within the group were known as "group dynamics".

Shivers (1963) has devoted considerable attention to group processes in his recreation leadership works. He drew upon the "better professional literature" to discuss the various components of the study of groups as a background to his commentaries on recreation leadership. Other writers of recreation leadership literature have supported the notion of group processes taking place in recreational groups. Kraus and Bates (1975) considered the understanding of group dynamics to be an important component of recreation leadership. It was considered essential that every member of the recreational group be aware of the dynamics taking place in the group in order that he might better be able to help the group achieve its goals.

Most recreation leadership situations are involved with groups. Writers of recreation leadership literature have drawn heavily upon the works of writers of leadership literature from other fields for support for their own views.

Adherents to group interaction theories of leadership in the non-recreation leadership literature emphasized the social-interaction effects of group members on resultant group goal attainment. Leadership was seen as a relationship between people, rather than as a characteristic of an individual.

Writers of recreation leadership literature tended to use knowledge of group processes and group interactions as a means to achieving desired recreation goals. Carlson, Deppe, and McLean (1963) considered such use. Weiskopf (1975) wrote in the same vein. Butler (1967) regarded the group as an opportunity to further recreation ideals. Shivers (1963) reported Bavelas and Lewin's (1942) study on leadership at a summer camp as reinforcement for attaining democratic goals. Kraus and Bates (1975) called upon a variety of results from social-psychological sources to discuss the effectiveness of group leaders. They included references to Bales' (1950) and Knowles' (1972) works on group dynamics. Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) did the same. Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates (1981) implied that the recreation leader could perform both group building and task-oriented functions, contrary to Knowles and Knowles' (1972) conclusions. According to Knowles and Knowles, the functions had to take place to achieve group goals and were shared between group members; no one person could possibly accomplish all group functions. Shivers (1963) related recreation leaders in groups to therapists using their knowledge of groups to help members to develop emotionally, socially, culturally, and educationally. Carlson, Deppe, and McLean (1963) regarded "group work" as a method used by recreation leaders, but they did not regard "recreation" itself as a "group work".

Sociological research on group behaviour has helped writers of recreation leadership literature. Recreation leaders are encouraged to direct their endeavours towards the achievement of desired group goals. A democratic approach and a thorough understanding of the interactions which take place in groups combine to further the recreationist's ends.

Consideration of the formal organizations as a structured group has encouraged a host of leadership theories dealing with the relations between humans in organizations. These theories have been known as "humanistic" theories and belong to what some researchers have called the "human relations school". Encouragement for the human relations school has come from top level management in organizations concerned with ultimate increases in production. It was hoped that by improving the relationships between workers and managers, work output might increase. Social-psychological leadership literature was considerably expanded with the advent of human relations theories. Work at the Ohio State and Michigan Universities prompted the advent of McGregor's (1960) theory "X" and Theory "Y", the Blake and Louton (1964) "Managerial Grid", and Reddins (1970) "Three-Dimensional Theory of Management Effectiveness".

Argyris (1957) suggested that an organization would be more effective when its leaders helped employees to make creative contributions as natural outgrowths of their own growth and needs for self-expression. Likert (1961) suggested that organizational leaders consider the expectations, values, and interpersonal skills of their followers. Bennis (1961) suggested the inclusion of more recognition and participation of the employee in the organization. According to Jacobs (1971), leadership implied an equitable exchange of relationship between leaders and followers.

No direct references to the organization as a group were found in the recreation leadership literature. Frequent reference, however, was made to theories belonging to the human relations school. Shivers (1963) thought the basic function of the recreationist within a public agency was in working and communicating with and understanding human beings and their individual behaviour patterns.

Edginton and Williams (1978) referred to the leadership studies of Ohio State and Michigan Universities. The "Managerial Grid", Fiedler's (1967) Contingency Model, Hershey and Blanchard's (1972) "Life-Cycle" theory were also referenced. Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) referred to McGregor's (1960) Theory "X" and Theory "Y" and Blake and Mouton's (1978) new "Managerial Grid".

Writers of recreation leadership literature found considerable utility in theories encouraging the humanistic approach. Most theories supported their concern for encouraging democratic approaches in the "people profession". Humanistic theories gave way to "contingency" theories in order to attempt to explain organizational effectiveness. Writers of recreation literature continue to consider the humanitarian values of theories pertaining to the human relations school.

The LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales regarded by this study as relating to the group are Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Freedom, Initiating Structure Consideration, and Integration. Consideration and Initiating Structure are regarded strongly by this study to belong to any discussion involving the group as a whole. However, as they have been discussed in the preceding section on the individual, and in the interest of brevity, they will not be discussed in this section on the group.

Stogdill (1974:143) regarded Representation as "speaks and acts as representative of the group", Demand Reconciliation as "reconciles conflicting organizational demands and reduces disorder to system", Tolerance of Freedom as "allows followers scope for initiative, decision, and action", and Integration as "maintains a closely-knit organization; resolves intermember conflicts". The results of this study showed that there was a significant and positive relationship between the leaders' description of the leaders' ability to speak and act as representatives of their groups, with the leaders' description of the leaders' ability to clarify role expectations, to maintain closely-knit organizations, and to cordially relate to and influence their superiors.

The leaders' ability to reconcile conflicting organizational demands was found to be significantly and positively related to their ability to tolerate uncertainties. Reconciling conflicting demands, however, was significantly and negatively related to pushing for productive output.

The leaders' description of their tolerance of member freedom of action related positively to leaders' descriptions of the leaders' tolerance of uncertainty, persuasiveness, consideration, ability to maintain a closely-knit organization, and influence with their superiors, and to participants' descriptions of the leaders' ability to reconcile conflicting demands, to be persuasive, and to retain the leadership role.

Leadership behaviours regarding the maintenance of a closely-knit group was significantly and positively related to leadership behaviours regarding representing the group, tolerating uncertainty, clearly defining roles, tolerating group member freedom of action, and being considerate of the welfare of the group.

In this study, those leadership behaviours considered to emphasize the group are, overall, related significantly and positively to one another.

Writers of recreation leadership literature appear to be very much concerned with normative characteristics of the individual leader and, at the same time, regard emphasizing the important role played by the group. The desirable individual characteristics so regularly espoused appear to be those that are likely to be of service to the group. For example, such characteristics as flexibility, social adaptability,and good communications are obviously beneficial in clarifying group goals in catering to individual group members, and in being able to relate positively to the members of the group. Other individual leader characteristics which are included in the various recreation writers' lists could be construed as achieving the same purposes: group cohesiveness and group productivity. From this study, the various leadership behaviours regarded as pertaining to the individual such as persuasiveness, clarifying role expectations, considerateness, and emphasizing productive output significantly related to those behaviours regarded as pertaining to the group. They, in themselves, could be construed as individual behaviours orientated to various aspects of group life.

Emphasis on the Environment

Several theories of leadership have been developed which consider the surroundings in which leadership takes place. These theories are variously known as situation theories, interaction theories, and contingency theories.

Situation theories of leadership were among the earlies theories found in non-recreation leadership literature. They emerged contemporaneously with trait theories. Psychologists with strong sociological and anthropological orientations emphasized the situation rather than the individual. The particular stage of development of society at the time determined which qualities of leadership were needed. The leader responded to the needs of followers or to the demands of the situation.

In the recreation leadership literature, writers acknowledged the effects of the situation on recreation leadership. Danford (1964) recommended study of the situation to determine what knowledge and skills were needed for recreation leadership. He advocated that the "training" of recreation leaders should be as broad as possible in order that they be prepared for a variety of situational aspects of the various tasks to be undertaken by the leaders. Danford maintained that leadership was not a factor in isolation. It could only be understood in relationship to the group, the individual members of the group and the situation. Kraus and Bates (1975) noted that leaders arise or emerge in situations where their personal qualities or capabilities will best serve their group members.

A place for situation theory has been found in recreation leadership. Its position, however, does not enjoy the prominence of trait theory.

The "interaction approach" stemmed from dissatisfaction with both "trait" theories and "situation" theories. A combination of the two in interaction appeared to be a more complete solution for devising a comprehensive theory of leadership. Interaction theory recognizes the important role the individual plays in a group's progress as well as the significance of the environment in which the group exists.

Fiedler's (1967) Contingency Model of Leadership is a classic example of depicting the manner in which leadership characteristics interact with the characteristics of the situation and is dependent upon the favourableness of the situation.

Writers of social-psychological leadership literature have been involved with interaction theories for a considerable period of time. Later theorists, including Fiedler (1967), have given attention to the conditional aspects of the situation rather than the more static and interactional aspects between the environment and leaders.

Writers of recreation leadership literature tend to regard interactional theories under the all-encompassing "situation" category. Edginton and Williams (1978) considered leadership to be a collabrative process involving action between leader and group and cooperation among group members within the framework of managerial, supervisory, and direct-service delivery systems. Carlson, Deppe, and McLean (1963) were aware of the situation in which the leader was employed, and the interaction between the two. The Lippitt and White (1943) study appeared in recreation leadership literature as a consideration of interactional aspects of group life. The Michigan Studies, the Blake and Mouton (1964) Managerial Grid, the Ohio State University studies, and Fiedler's (1967) Contingency Model were all referred to in an interactional sense (Edginton and Williams, 1978).

The interaction approach to leadership broadened the scope of leadership theory development. The more recent recreation leadership literature has dutifully noticed the developments of leadership theory as reported in the non-recreation leadership literature, and some writers have suggested implications of the new development for the recreation and leisure service areas.

Contingency theories of leadership are the latest extension of situational theory and the interaction approach. Contingency theories examine the conditions under which one kind of leadership behaviour will be superior to another. They also examine the conditions which tend to influence leadership behaviour.

A variety of contingency theories of leadership, stemming from Fiedler's (1967) work, have been reported in the social-psychological literature on leadership in the last decade. References to these theories appear only in few recreation publications, and only then in limited quantities. Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates (1981) include a section on contingency theory. They report only Fiedler's (1967) work and some updating by Fiedler and Chemers (1974). Although the reference to contingency leadership theories by recreation writers is sparse, earlier recreation writers, such as Carlson, Deppe and McLean (1963) were aware of the environmental constraints on recreation programme development and effectiveness.

Three of the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales are regarded by this study as leadership behaviour relating to the environment in which the leadership is being performed. These sub-scales are Tolerance of Uncertainty, Predictive Accuracy, and Superior Orientation. Stogdill (1974:143) regarded Tolerance of Uncertainty as "is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety and upset", Predictive Accuracy as "exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately", and Superior Orientation as "maintains cordial relations with superiors; has influence with them; is striving for higher status".

In this study, the leaders' description of their leadership behaviour regarding tolerance of uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset related significantly and positively to the leaders' description of their leadership behaviour regarding reconciliation of conflicting organizational demands, tolerance of member freedom of action, role definition and clarification of role expectations, consideration, and the maintenance of a closely-knit organization. The leaders' description of their tolerance of uncertainty was related significantly and positively, also to the participants' description of their leaders' leadership behaviour regarding role definition and clarification of role expectations. The leaders' tolerance of uncertainty, however, was related significantly and negatively to the leaders' behaviour of pushing for productive output.

The leaders' description of their leader behaviour regarding the exhibition of foresight and the ability to predict outcomes accurately related significantly and positively to the leaders' description of leader behaviour regarding initiation of structure and influence with superiors. This study's findings revealed that the leaders' description of their leadership behaviour regarding influence with superiors was related positively with the leaders' description of leadership behaviour regarding group representation, tolerance of member freedom of action, and the ability to predict outcomes accurately.

Although some of the leader behaviours regarded as relating the environment (predicting future events and relating to superiors) were related positively and significantly to one another, they were related significantly and positively to several leadership behaviours which tended to emphasize the group (tolerating member freedom of action, group representation, clearly defining roles, and maintaining a closely-knit organization).

Sex and Leadership

Few examples of the relationship between sex and leadership exist in the non-recreation leadership literature.

Terman (1904) conducted his prelimiary study of the psychology and pedagogy of leadership using school students from Indiana, U.S.A. He found that in order for girls to be leaders they needed such attributes and qualities as : good looks, neatness of dress, politeness and manners; jolly, lively, ready for fun; bribery, flattery and coaxing; an "only" child, used to having own way at home; and good disposition and temper; friendly, pleasant, gentle, attractive, amiable, unaffected, natural, unobtrusive, and meek. Boys, however, were found to need: age, size; strength, activity, quickness, skill in devising and playing games; loyalty, honesty, frank, just, courage, boldness; brightness, scholarship; stange, greater experience, coarse, uses slang, mischievous, smoked, wit (in Gibb, 1969:83). Terman surmised that leadership is more common with boys than with girls, and more intensive. Group spirit appeared to be stronger with boys whereas girls showed less "give and take" spirit. Terman considered his results as as further "proof that girls do not have the inherent social tendencies that boys have" (Terman, 1904:84 cited in Gibb, 1969:84). Terman indicated that differences in social tendencies between males and females of primitive races had been noted in the literature.

Stogdill's 1948 comprehensive survey of research findings relating to leadership traits, reprinted in his 1974 Handbook, unearthed some studies which included comparisons between males and females.

Belingrath (1930) found girl leaders to be younger than non-leaders, but boy leaders were older. Caldwell and Wellman (1926) found that boy editors and student council members are younger than average, as are girls club leaders and student council and citizenship representatives. Tryon (1939) found that trait clusters applying to boys and girls at 12 years of age differed from those at 15 years of age. He noted that girls appeared to mature more rapidly in social interests than did boys. The leadership cluster for 12 year old boys consisted consisted of: daring, leader, active in games, and friendly. The leaderssip cluster for 15 year old boys consisted of: daring, leader, active active in games and fights. For 12 year old girls the leadership trait cluster consisted of: daring, leader, humour about jokes, while for 15 year old girls, the cluster was: popular, friendly, enthusiastic, happy, humour about jokes, daring, and leader. Tryon (1939) suggested that appearance was more closely associated with leadership in boys than in girls.

Sward(1933) found that, although inferiority scores on the Heidbreder rating scale did not differentiate between leaders and non-leaders, women leaders rated themselves as higher in inferiority attitudes than did their associates.

Tryon (1939) reported correlation coefficients of .59,.48, .25, and .40 between fighting and leadership for 12 year old boys, 15 year old boys, 12 year old girls, and 15 year old girls respectively.

Ackerson (1942) found that leadership and stealing and leading others into misconduct correlated .46 and .16 for boys and girls respectively. Rudeness and leading others into be conduct correlated with leadership .24 for boys and .40 for girls. Jennings (1943) regarded one of the characteristics of girl leaders in an institution was the ability to control their own moods so as not to impose depressions and anxieties on others. She also found that chosen girl leaders tended to inspire confidence.

Few comments exist in the recreation leadership literature which refer to the relationship between sex and leadership. More comments are to be found referring to the role of the leader in catering to both sexes for programme development and operation, with special emphasis on "the elimination of sexism in public and private employment" (Kraus and Curtis, 1977:11). Other writers comment in a similar fashion (Sessoms and Stevenson, 1981; Shivers, 1978; Vannier, 1977).

In this study, the sex of the leaders correlated negatively and significantly with the name of the academic degree held (-.55) and the major area of study emphasis (-.55). There were more female leaders (eight) than male leaders (seven). The majority of male leaders were holders of university degrees, whereas only one female leader was, thus accounting for the negative correlation between sex and the above academic qualifications. Also in this study, it was found that the sex of the leader entered the stepwise multiple regression equation firstly for the leaders LBDQ - Form XII scores on the sub-scales Reconciliation (R^2 = .04) and Predictive Accuracy (R^2 = .13). However, employment experience, age, and sex in combination proved to be the best predictors for the leaders' scores on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales Representation (R^2 = .86), Tolerance of Uncertainty (R^2 = .73), Initiating Structure

(R^2 = .70), Consideration (R^2 = .81), and Integration (R^2 = .79). The sex of the leader entered the regression equation firstly on the participant groups' scores on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales Initiating Structure (R^2 = .04), Production Emphasis (R^2 = .03), and Superior Orientation (R^2 = .12). Sex, age, and employment experience of the leaders in combination proved to be the best predictors for the participant groups' scores on similar LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales as for the leaders, with the inclusion of Production Emphasis. They were, however, somewhat weaker, requiring up to ten variables in each equation. The sex of a leader by itself is not a strong predictor for leadership, according to this study. These results support the findings in the literature.

Age and Leadership

According to Stogdill (1974) the evidence as to the relation of age to leadership is contradictory. His research revealed six studies to indicate that leaders were found to be younger, ten studies to indicate that leaders were found to be older, two in which no differences were found, and one in which the age-leadership relation differed with the situation. In view of these findings, Stogdill concluded that "chronological age cannot be regarded as a factor which is correlated with leadership in any uniform direction or degree (Stogdill, 1974:40). Stogdill did allow, however, after his 1948-70 review of leadership trait research, that age appeared to relate to leadership in a complicated fashion. He concluded that a young person desiring quick recognition of his talents should choose a profession in which individual accomplishment brings prestige. In large organizations administrative knowledge and demonstration of success, that come with age and experience, are relied upon.

Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) summarized concern with age and leadership in the recreation leadership literature with the following:

> Little evidence exists that age is closely related to leadership; skills and practice of leadership can be effectively developed and used by all persons. Increasing experiences with age in a variety of social situations often facilitate participation (Sessoms and Stevenson, 1981:94).

In this study,age correlated with employment experience of the leaders, but not with either leader or participant scores on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales. The age range of the leader variable entered firstly into the stepwise multiple regression equations with the leaders' scores on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales Persuasion ($R^2 = .04$), Initiating Structure ($R^2 = .26$), Consideration ($R^2 = .22$), Production Emphasis ($R^2 = .04$) and Superior Orientation ($R^2 = .08$). As previously mentioned, age, sex, and employment experience in combination were the best predictors for such leader behaviour as Representation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Integration. They were weaker predictors for the participant groups' descriptions on the same sub-scales, but included Production Emphasis. According to this study, the age of the leader by itself is not a good predictor of leadership behaviour. These results support the findings in the literature.

Training and Leadership

Leadership training and experience are closely linked in recreation leadership literature and leadership literature from other fields. While training usually refers to pre-job preparation and structured in-service learning, experience refers to time spent in a single position, or in various positions, learning on the job.

Fiedler (1965) suggested that orthodox training held that the leader must be the "brain" of the group. Training was involved so that leaders could learn to plan, direct, coordinate, supervise, and evaluate work done by members of his group. In the 1940's a newer approach evolved which concentrated on 1) improving the leaders' human relations orientation, 2) a more non-directive style, and 3) group-centred behaviours. This approach gave birth to brainstorming and sensitivity training. A whole industry developed around providing training opportunities for organizations along the newer approach. The most lucrative and famous training programmes were the T groups ("T" for training) developed by the National Training Laboratories. A considerable amount of non-recreation leadership literature relates to sensitivity training.

The overall effects of the newer approach resulted in increased group cohesiveness and understanding and decreased group productivity. Weaknesses were found in both theory and method of training.

Writers of recreation leadership literature concerned themselves with the preparation of potential recreation leaders when discussing training. The need to have qualified recreation leaders in the field was reported throughout their writings. Personality characteristics, college course curricula, and standards were suggested. Dresser (1954) went so far as to write about the inadequacies of existing teacher certification regarding "recreation education", recommending that only after satisfactory completion of courses of study in the field of recreation should anyone be permitted to teach recreation education. Meyer and Brightbill (1956a) and Butler (1967) stressed specific training of leaders to meet the needs of groups attending recreation service programmes. Edginton and Williams (1978) and Edginton and Eldridge (1975) emphasized the need for the training of recreation personnel in production-oriented management situations. Edginton and his associates seemed to be more concerned with the managerial levels of recreation service departments, whereas Butler and Meyer and Brightbill were concerned with the functional or face-to-face level of the department. Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates (1981), however, tend to support training in goals of recreation for all levels. They claim the outcomes of recreation departments are different to those of other organizations, and that training methods and content used by other organizations are inappropriate, especially those in which the measurements of one's effectiveness is more clear cut than in the recreation service area. Sessoms and Stevenson (1981) say there is no real difference between a recreation service department and a large corporation. Leadership training and development are required in all types of organizations. Because training effects behaviour change, a more efficient system to achieve goals will be accomplished by training workers to be more effective.

The main difference between the emphasis on training in the recreation leadership literature and the non-recreation leadership literature is that the former still refers to the development of the basic "tools of the trade", while the latter is concerned with improving the effective use of "tools". Recent writers of recreation literature are beginning to emulate the themes found in non-recreation leadership literature.

The problems faced by practitioners in the recreation field (Winshall, 1980) appear to be problems of inadequate preparation for an aspect of the positions of leadership the practitioners occupy.

The practitioners appear to wish for more and better administrative training in order to cope with the financial constraints and technological changes taking place in society. These changes demand more sophisticated approaches to the provision and operation of current recreational services. The previous training had by the practitioners or the academic training referred to in the recreation leadership literature does not appear to be adequate to serve the needs of the practitioners currently in the field.

An empirical aspect of this study was concerned with the relationship between training and leadership behaviour. Significant relationships were found between certain leader training variables selected for this study and six of the twelve LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales. For the sub-scale Representation, a significant and positive relationship was found with the training variable "highest level of degree held" (.67). Those leaders who described themselves as speaking and acting as the representatives of their groups were the holders of university degrees. For the sub-scale Persuasion, a significant and negative relationship was found with the leader training variable "any specific training in the type of programme now led" (-.55). Those leaders who described themselves as persuasive had had specific training for the programmes they were leading. Also, those leaders who did regard themselves as persuasive had received less specific training for the programmes they led. There was a significant and negative relationship between Initiating Structure and the leader training variable "any specific training in the type of programme now led" (-.53). Those leaders who described themselves as able to clearly define their role and clarify role expectations had received specific training for the programmes they were leading.. For the sub-scale Tolerance of Freedom, a significant and positive relationship was found with the leader training variable "type of academic qualifications" (.56). Leaders with higher academic qualificiations tended to describe themselves as letting their group members have scope for initiative and action. The sub-scale Predictive Accuracy correlated significantly and positively with several leader training variables: "type of academic qualifications" (.68) and "minor study emphasis" (.65). Academically qualified leaders regarded themselves as exhibiting foresight and as having the ability to predict outcomes accurately. The sub-scale Superior Orientation correlated significantly and positively with several leader training variables, also: "location of specific training" (.58); "type of academic qualifications" (.61); "highest level of degree held" (.56); and "minor study emphasis" (.55). The leader who had academic qualifications and specific training for the programmes they were leading described themselves as able to maintain cordial relations and have influence with their superiors. No other forms of leadership behaviour as described by the leaders were significantly related to the leader training variables. The participant groups' descriptions of leadership behaviour did not relate significantly with any leader training variables. Only the qualified leaders seemed to regard their training as significantly related to their leadership behaviour and then only on very few examples of leadership behaviour.

Experience and Leadership

In the social-psychological field, the relationship between experience and leadership is disappointing. Fiedler and Chemers (1974) offered a solution to the disappointing results of research in the matters of training and experience by referring to the "Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness". Training and experience had the effect of changing the "situational favourableness" of the leader, they claimed, and, depending on whether the leader was high L.P.C. or low L.P.C., this effect could alter his resultant performance. Their solution, however, was not above reproach by peers. Kerr and Harlan (1973) argued that the Contingency Model was based on the relationship between the known L.P.C. score and a known degree of favourableness of the situation. How the situation became favourable or unfavourable was immaterial. They were concerned, also, that if training and experience affected the situation, alterations could occur to a leader's motivational make-up, thus affecting his L.P.C. score. Either way, the arguments of Fiedler and Chemers were not convincing. Kerr (1974) offered the explanation that substitutes for leadership, such as an organization's rules and regulations or outside standards of professional behaviour and methodology, may be more influential in accounting for an apparent lack of performance success for the leader than his training and/or experience.

Leadership experience as discussed in the recreation leadership literature is a constant concern. Several writers have suggested how much experience and what type of experiences were needed for people at various levels of leadership in the recreation field (Butler, 1967 ; Corbin, 1953; Kraus, Carpenter, and Bates, 1981; Rodney, 1964). The recreation leadership literature on experience and training is normative in nature to the point where actual time periods of experience are allocated for certain positions and specific course content is suggested for training programmes.

In this study, few significant relationships were found between the descriptions of leadership behaviour by leaders and participants and the leader experience variables. The leaders' description of their behaviour on the sub-scale Demand Reconciliation related significantly and positively to "any permanent employment" (.63) and related significantly and negatively to "amount of permanent employment in years" (-.64). These results indicate that those leaders who had a considerable amount of employment experience described themselves low on the ability to reconcile conflicting organizational demands. The leaders' description of their behaviour on the sub-scale Tolerance of Uncertainty was related significantly and negatively to the leader experience variable "amount of casual employment in weeks" (-.70). Five of the leaders (macrame, social dancing, canoe construction, art, and life-saving) had accumulated some casual employment experience in weeks. These five leaders described themselves low on the ability to tolerate uncertainty and postponement. The leaders' description of their behaviour on the sub-scale Initiating Structure correlated positively and significantly with the leader experience variable "amount of seasonal employment in weeks" (.62). As no leaders declared any seasonal employment in weeks, the leaders tended to describe themselves overall as low in the leader behaviour regarding the definition of their roles and the clarification of role expectations. The participants' description of their leaders' behaviour on the sub-scale Initiating Structure correlated negatively and significantly with "amount of casual employment in weeks" (-.69). The participants described the leaders of macrame, social dancing, canoe construction, art, and life-saving classes as low on defining their roles and clarifying role expectations. The leaders' description of themselves on Role Assumption correlated significantly and negatively with their "amount of permanent employment experience in years" (-.58). The leaders of the bridge ladies keep fit, adult swimming, women's physical culture, community band, swim instruction, golf, life-saving, and dog obedience classes described themselves as not overly concerned with retention of the leadership role.

The leaders' description of themselves on the sub-scale Consideration correlated positvely and significantly with the leader experience variable "any permanent employment?" (.66) The majority of leaders in the study did not regard themselves as being considerate of their participants. A positive and significant correlation was found between the descriptions of leader Production Emphasis and the "amount of casual employment in years" (.52). The leaders of the bridge, women's physical culture, community band, swim instruction, golf, and dog obedience classes regarded themselves as pushing for production output. Their participants tended to agree with them as the participants' description of their leaders' behaviour on Production Emphasis correlated positively and significantly with the same leader experience variable (.56). The participants of the macrame, social dancing, canoe construction, art, and life saving classes described their leaders as not pushing for production output. Their descriptions of their leaders on Production Emphasis correlated negatively and significantly with the leader experience variable "amount of casual employment in weeks" (-.59) which applied only to their leaders. These same leaders were described by their participants as low on having foresight and the ability to predict outcomes accurately. The participants' description of leader behaviour on Predictive Accuracy correlated negatively and significantly with "amount of casual employment in weeks" (-.52). The leaders' description of themselves on Integration correlated negatively and significantly with the leader experience variable "any seasonal employment?" (-.54). The leaders of the ladies keep fit, adult swim, community band, and swimming instruction classes were the only leaders to claim any seasonal employment. These leaders described themselves as being low on the ability to develop a closely-knit group. The participants of the macrame, social dancing, canoe construction, art, and life saving classes also described their leaders as being low on the ability to develop a closely-knit group. Their descriptions of their leaders on Integration correlated negatively and significantly with the leader experience variable "amount of casual employment in weeks" (-.68) which applied only to those classes. These same participants described their leaders as low on good relations with their superiors or on their ability to influence their superiors.

The correlation between the participants' description of their leaders on Superior Orientation and the leader experience variable "amount of casual employment in weeks" was both negative and significant (-.68)

Skills and Leadership

Leadership skills are thought of as those skills required by a leader in a group or an organization which contribute to his effectiveness in accomplishing group goals. These skills may be acquired naturally and/or through training and experience.

Commmentaries on leadership skills are to be found in recreation leadership literature and in non-recreation leadership literature. For example, fluency of speech is recognised in both sets of literature as a characteristic which differentiates the leader from followers (Fejes, 1942; Kraus and Bates, 1975; Shivers, 1963; Stogdill, 1974; Tillman, 1975; Weiskopf, 1975). Other characteristics of leaders found in both sets of literature are: 1) drive for responsibility; 2) enterprise, initiative; 3) achievement drive; and 4) sociability and interpersonal skills. Mann (1965) developed a "skill-mix" theory which held that a different mix of supervisory skills is appropriate at the different hierarchical levels of an organization. Technical skills are more important at upper levels and human-relations skills are important at all management levels. Farris and Butterfield (1973) found, however, that bank executives in Brazil were rated the highest in all types of skill with technical skill being the highest. United States theories of leadership (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Bowers and Seashore, 1966; Likert, 1961, 1967) argue that, in virtually all leadership situations, the more successful leaders are higher in technical skills and human-relations skills. Farris (1974) employed supervisor competence as a contingency variable in his study of the effectiveness of scientists' groups and found that the degree of technical skill of the supervisor served as an important moderator of relationships between innovation and critical evaluation. Human-relations skills had little moderating effect on the general positive relationship between task function and innovation, and vice versa.

Writers of recreation leadership literature have included similar concepts to those found in the non-recreation leadership literature reported above. According to Edginton and Williams (1978), the possession of technical, human, and conceptual skills is required of recreation managers. Butler (1967) acknowledged that the recreation executive was required to have 1) a thorough knowledge of the theory and philosophy of recreation, 2) an understanding of the community, 3) administrative, organizational, and operational skills associated with programming, and 4) personal management techniques. Shivers (1963), Carlson, Deppe, and McLean (1963) and Hjelte and Shivers (1978) expressed the same sentiments.

One area which gets considerable attention in the recreation leadership literature is the importance of the acquisition of skills and techniques required for working in the recreation field. Much attention is paid to altruistic leadership principles which encompass the philosophical aspects of the behaviour of recreation leaders, usually at the face-to-face level of operation. These principles are very much written in the normative vein.

Another area which gets considerable attention in the recreation leadership literature, which does not appear to be in the non-recreation literature, is the notion of the "acquisition of skills" being synonymous with "leadership". The learning of qualities and standards of leadership and the learning of and participation in sports and games, dance techniques, arts and crafts, sailing, mountain climbing, canoeing, public speaking, and writing skills (Ball, 1954; Laporte, 1934; Mauley, 1943; May, 1941; Pittman, 1954), are labelled as leadership. The inference might be that, by participating in these activities, leadership techniques may be learned as well as the skills required to indulge in the activity. This aspect of leadership _as_ the acquisition of skills sets recreation leadership literature apart from other leadership literature.

Summary. In this chapter the results of the reviews of non-recreation leadership literature and recreation leadership literature were compared with the results of the empirical investigations of the study.

It was found that, by examining various definitions of leadership in both bodies of literature, the various conceptions of leadership held by writers of recreation leadership literature were similar to those conceptions held by writers of other leadership literature.

Although no specific theories of leadership were found in the recreation leadership literature, much evidence exists that writers of recreation leadership literature have drawn upon the theories of leadership developed and reported in other fields.

Concerning leadership as emphasis on the individual, much support for trait theory, and human-relations theory was found in the recreation leadership literature. A democratic style of leadership was heavily emphasized for the recreation field. This study regarded the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales Tolerance of Uncertainty, Persuasion, Consideration, Role Assumption, Initiating Structure and Production Emphasis as pertaining to individual leadership characteristics, behaviour, and style. These sub-scales refer to such leadership characteristics, behaviour, and style as persuasiveness, as able to clearly define roles and clarify role expectations, as considerate, as able to exercise the leadership role, and as the ability to emphasize productive output.

Emphasis on the group plays an important role in recreation leadership literature. Recreation leadership authors have drawn heavily upon group process theories and human-relations theories, found in other literature, to emphasize the importance of understanding group dynamics. Such an understanding would help achieve desired goals, and encourage recreation leaders to adopt democratic principles when working with their groups.

Several individual leader characteristics could be construed as group serving and, in this study, they related significantly and positively to other leader behaviours regarded as pertaining to the group situation.

The leadership behaviours considered by this study as pertinent to the group were speaking and acting for the group, reconciling conflicting organizational demands, allowing followers scope for initiative, decision, and action, clarifying role expectations, considering the welfare of followers, and maintaining a closely-knit group. These groups orientated leader behaviours overal were found to be significantly and positively related to each other.

Writers of recreation leadership literature have recognized the effects of the environment on leadership. Recreation writers refer to situation theories in the recreation field, whereas reference to interaction and contingency theories consists of reporting theoretical developments from other fields.

This study regarded the following leadership behaviours as relating to the environment: tolerating uncertainty and postponement without anxiety and upset; exhibiting foresight and able to predict outcomes accurately; and maintaining cordial relations with superiors having influence with superiors, and striving for higher status.

Tolerating uncertainty was found to be correlated significantly and positively with such other leadership behaviours as the ability to reconcile conflicting demands, tolerating member freedom of action, retaining the leadership, considerateness, and maintaining a closely-knit group. The leaders' descriptions of tolerating uncertainty was found also to be significantly and positively related to the participants' descriptions of their leaders' ability to actively exercise the leadership role. Also found, according to the descriptions by the leaders, that the ability to tolerate uncertainty was correlated significantly and negatively with the ability to push for productive output.

The ability to predict future outcomes accurately was correlated significantly and positively with the leaders' ability to clearly define roles and role expectations, and their ability to maintain cordial relations with their superiors.

Maintaining cordial relations with superiors and the ability to influence superiors as a leadership behaviour was found to be correlated significantly and positively with the ability to speak and act as the representative of the group, with the ability to tolerate group member freedom of action, and with the ability to predict future outcomes accurately.

Although certain leadership behaviours regarded as relating to the environment were correlated significantly and positively with one another, they were correlated significantly and positively also to several leadership behavrious regarded as relating to the groups (e.g. tolerating member freedom of action, group representation, clearly defining roles, and maintaining a closely-knit group.

There is little mention of the relationship between six and leadership in the non-recreation leadership literature and none was found in the recreation leadership literature. Although sex of the leader appeared as a predictor of leaders' and participants' sub-scale scores in this study, it was rather weak by itself and needed age and employment experience variables added to its contribution to predicting scores on Representation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Integration.

The evidence in the non-recreation leadership literature as to the relation of age to leadership is contradictory. Those writers of recreation leadership literature who included age in their discussions of leadership suggested that little evidence existed that age was closely related to leadership. In this study, age correlated with employment experience, but not with any LBDG - Form XII sub-scales. Age did appear in combination with sex and work experience as a predictor of the leadership behaviour regarding Representation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Integration.

Not much evidence was found from empirical studies in the non-recreation leadership literature to support training as essential to leadership. The recreation leadership literature, however, supports the notion of required training for leadership in the recreation field through the use of normative statements and suggestions. The variables associated with training for leaders correlated significantly and positively with such leadership behaviours as tolerating member freedom of action, the ability to predict future outcomes, group representation, the ability to clearly define roles and role expectations, and the ability to influence and have cordial relations with their superiors. No participants' descriptions of leadership behaviour related to training variables significantly.

Evidence from empirical studies in the non-recreation leadership literature regarding experience and leadership was inconclusive. In the recreation leadership literature, experience for the leader was regarded as an essential asset. Suggestions were made for specific types and amounts of experience required for specific recreation positions. Few significant relationship's were found between the descriptions of leadership by participants and by leaders and work experience in ths study. The ability to push for productive output was found to be correlated significantly and positively with greater amounts of experience. Lesser amounts of experience correlated significantly and negatively to such leadership behaviours as having cordial relations with superiors, as being able to predict future coutcomes accurately, and as pushing for productive output.

Overall, this study tends to support the findings of the non-recreation leadership literature on training and experience. There is little evidence, however, to support the statements and suggestions found in the recreation leadership literature.

The recreation leadership literature and the non-recreation leadership literature both include reference to the realization that supervisory, executive, and technical skills were related to leadership. The acquisition of basic skills was regarded as the acquisition of leadership by writers of recreation leadership literature and tends to distinguish this body of literature from the non-recreation leadership literature.

Chapter 7

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This chapter consists of a summary of the procedures and findings of the study.

The purpose of the study was to examine the nature of leadership in the recreation field. The overall problem which was examined by the study was: How is recreation leadership described by writers of recreation leadership literature and by empirical data? Sub-problems were developed and tested which related to the relationship between recreation leadership literature and non-recreation leadership literature, empirical descriptions of leadership by leaders of municipal recreation programmes and by their programme participants, programme characteristics, and demographic characteristics of the leaders regarding sex, age, employment experience, and academic qualifications.

Initially, to accomplish this task, a review of non-recreation leadership literature was undertaken and reported in Chapter 2. The review examined various definitions of leadership with the aid of Stogdill's (1974) system of categorization and by use of a model to depict theories of leadership which emphasized the individual, the group, and the environment. The aspects of leadership training, leadership experience, and leadership skills were addressed also. A review of recreation leadership was conducted using a similar approach to that for the non-recreation leadership literature and was reported in Chapter 3.

The Leaders' Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form X11 (LBDQ - Form X11) was utilized to examine empirical descriptions of recreation leadership. The data gathered from the completion of the LBDQ - Form X11 by leaders and participants of 15 selected municipally-operated recreation programmes in the Province of Alberta , Canada, were subjected to various statistical procedures. Demographic data, gathered by implementation of a questionnaire developed especially for this study, were subjected to various statistical procedures and compared with the data generated by the LBDQ - Form X11. The results of the examination of the empirical data were reported in Chapter 5. In Chapter 6, a comparison between the two reviews of literature and the results of the empirical investigations was made.

Reviews of Literature

Sub-problems 1 and 2. Sub-problem 1 was concerned with the description of leadership by writers of recreation leadership literature. Sub-problem 1 addressed the question: What is recereation leadership as described by recreation leadership literature? Sub-problem 2 was concerned with the comparison between the descriptions of leadership by recreation leadership literature and the descriptions of leadership found in the non-recreation leadership literature. Sub-problem 2 addressed the question: How do the descriptions of leadership by writers of recreation leadership literature and by writers of non-recreation leadership literature compare?

Results. Use was made of Stogdill's (1974) eleven categories of definitions of leadership to compare definitions found in the non-recreation leadership literature and recreation leadership literature.

Stogdill's categories consisted of: 1) a focus of group processes, 2) as personality and its effects, 3) as the art of inducing compliance, 4) as the exercise of influence, 5) as an act or behaviour, 6) as a form of persuasion, 7) as a power relation, 8) as an instrument of goal achievement, 9) as an effect of interaction, (10) as a differentiated role, and 11) as the initiation of structure (Stogdill 1974:7-16). Similar definitions of leadership were found in both sets of literature. Although not identical, definitions of leadership were found in the recreation leadership literature which corresponded to definitions of leadership found in the non-recreation leadership literature for all Stogdill's categories except for the last two: "as a differentiated role" and "as the initiation of structure". "Leadership as the exercise of influence" and "leadership as an instrument of goal achievement" were categories in which most definitions of leadership in the recreation leadership literature were found.

Although no precise theories of leadership were found peculiar to the recreation leadership literature, reference to leadership theories originating in the non-recreation leadership literature were found. Also, commentaries, which appeared to be paradigmatically based, were found in the recreation leadership literature which concerned leadership as emphasis on the individual, as emphasis on the group, and, occasionally, as emphasis on the environment. It was found that training and experience for leadership were not wholly supported by the non-recreation leadership literature. In the recreation leadership literature, however, training for leadership and experience in leadership positions continues to be encouraged The recognition of executive, managerial, supervisory, and technical skills as attributes of leadership were found in both sets of leadership literature. The acquisition of technical skills is considered to be leadership itself in the recreation leadership literature. The future prospects for the examination of leadership in the non-recreation leadership literature are doubtful. It was found that problems existed with the term "leadership" itself, aggravated somewhat by the diversity of opinion regarding the term. The term "leadership" has enjoyed a position of prominence in the recreation leadership literature and continues to do so in current works. It was found that writers of recreation leadership literature tend to draw upon developments in the non-recreation literature, yet remain selective of information considered to be supportative of current practices.

Use of the LBDQ - Form XII in the Measurement of Recreation Leadership

The LBDQ - Form XII was chosen as the questionnaire to gather empirical data in this study due to its reliability, validity, and longevity. Most current questionnaires developed for the measurement of leadership have been criticized recently (Schriesheim, 1978; Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977). Although all questionnaires considered were found to be suspect according to psychometric criteria, the LBDQ - Form XII was the most unscathed. The choice was made, also, to utilize the LBDQ - Form XII in this study as it measures a larger number of leadership behaviours than do other questionnaires. Stogdill (1974:155) advised "It would seem desirable to explore possibilities of a multifactor approach rather than rest content with a two-factor solution". As a check on the questionnaire's suitability for measuring leadership in the recreation field, an item-to-item factor match procedure was employed. The results indicated that the recreation programme participant responses to the 100 items of the LBDQ - Form XII loaded on those sub-scales originally assigned by Stogdill (1963). Of all the sub-scales, Consideration was revealed as the weakest, having similar and low Tucker coefficients of congruence on several other sub-scales. Where Consideration was shown to be a weak factor in this study, the results indicated that Representation, Initiating Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Production Emphasis, and Superior Orientation were strong factors.

Sub-problem 3: Variable Interrelationships and Combined Interrelationships.

Sub-problem 3 was concerned with the relationships between programme characteristics, leader characteristics, and descriptions of leadership. The question addressed was: What is the relationship between demographic characteristics of recreation leaders and descriptions of leadership by those leaders and by their programme participants? The SPSS sub-programme "Regression" was employed to ascertain the relationships.

Variable Interrelationships: Correlation Analysis.

Results. By using the correlation matrix generated by the SPSS "Regression" sub-programme, characteristics and leader characteristics correlated significantly with various LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale scores attained by the leaders and by their programme participants.

Programmes of longer duration were found to be correlated positively and significantly with permanent employment experience and the leaders descriptions of their ability to push for productive output. Reconciling conflicting organizational demands, tolerating uncertainty, and the ability to exercise the leadership role, as described by the leaders, were found to be significantly and negatively correlated with programmes of longer duration. Programmes which included a greater number of sessions and which had completed a greater number of sessions by the time the leadership data were gathered were found to correlate similarly to these leadership behaviours. However, it was found that programmes which included sessions of longer duration correlated significantly and positively with the leaders' ability to be considerate.

The female leaders, who constituted the majority of leaders, were found not to have more advanced academic qualifications.

The leaders in the older age ranges were found to have more specific training for the programmes they led.

Employment experience of the casual or seasonal type and accumulated by the leaders in terms of weeks were found to be associated with such kinds of leadership behaviour as tolerating group member freedom of action, reconciling conflicting organizational demands, and maintaining a closely-knit group. Permanent employment experience was found to be associated with such leadership behaviours as pushing for productive output, as able to predict future outcomes, and as having cordial relations and influence with superiors.

Combined Interrelationships: Stepwise Multiple Regression.

Results. By using the step-wise procedures included in the SPSS sub-programme "Regression", the leaders' demographic characteristics were tested as predictors of both leaders' and participants' scores on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales. It was found that employment experience, age, and sex were predictors of leaders' scores on such leadership behaviours as Representation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Integration. Experience, age, and sex of the leaders were found also to be predictors of participants' scores on similar leadership behaviours including Production Emphasis.

Leader Self Descriptions: Analysis of Variance.

Sub-problem 4 - LBDQ - Form XII Overall. Sub-problem 4 was concerned with the manner in which recreation leaders described their leadership. Addressed was: How do recreation leaders describe leadership? Tested by one-way analysis of variance for repeated measures was the null-hypothesis:

> $H_0 4$: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by leaders of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes when measured over 12 sub-scales of the LBDQ - Form XII.

Results. The null-hypothesis was rejected as significant differences were found between the leaders' description of leadership. Fifteen different leaders, with different educational and experiential backgrounds, conducting 15 different recreation programmes ranging from instruction in the game of bridge to instruction in the art of developing dog obedience were found to be different in the manner in which they described themselves over 12 examples of leadership behaviour.

Sub-problem 4(a) - LBDQ - Form X11 by Experience on Sub-Scales. Sub-problem 4(a) was concerned with the influence of the leaders' experience on leadership behaviour. The sub-problem addressed the question: What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by experienced recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by less-experienced recreation leaders? Ten of the 15 leaders were judged experienced according to the criteria used in this study. Null hypotheses for each LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale were developed to be tested by one-way analysis of variance procedures. For example, the null hypothesis for the sub-scale

Representation stated:

> $H_0$4(a)i: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by experienced leaders and descriptions of leadership by less-experienced leaders of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Representation.

Results. All null hypotheses for all twelve of the sub-scales, with the exceptions of Predictive Accuracy and Superior Orientation, were accepted. The null hypotheses for Predictive Accuracy and Superior Orientation were rejected. From this study, experience of the leader plays a part in the leaders' ability to display foresight and predict outcomes accurately and has a significant bearing on the way recreation leaders review their relationships with their superiors. Experienced leaders described themselves as able to exercise foresight and predict outcomes accurately as well as able to influence their superiors. Experience seems to have little effect on other forms of leadership behaviour as described by the LBDQ - Form XII.

Sub-problem 4(b) - LBDQ - Form XII by Training on Sub-Scales. Sub-problem 4(b) was concerned with the relationship between academic qualifications and leadership for recreation leaders. Addressed was the question: What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by qualified recreation leaders and less-qualified recreation leaders? Seven of the 15 leaders were judged qualified and the remainder less-qualified. Null-hypotheses for each LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale were developed for testing with one-way analysis of variance procedures. As an example, the null hypothesis for the sub-scale Representation stated:

> $H_0$4(b)i: There is no significant difference of leadership by qualified leaders and the descriptions of leadership by less-qualified leaders of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Representation.

Results. The null hypotheses for all sub-scales, with the exception of the sub scale Predictive Accuracy, were accepted. No significantly different descriptions of leadership were found between qualified and less-qualified recreation leaders on eleven of the LBDQ - Form X11 subscales. Significant differences were found only on the sub-scale Predictive Accuracy. Academic qualifications for recreation leaders influence the way recreation leaders describe their ability to exhibit foresight and predict outcomes accurately, according to this study. On other forms of leadership behaviour, academic qualifications have little bearing on the way recreation leaders describe their leadership.

Inter-Participant Descriptions: Analysis of Variance

Sub-problem 5.- LBDQ - Form X11 Overall. Sub-problem 5 stated: How do participants in recreation programmes describe the leadership of their leaders?

One-way analysis of variance for repeated measures procedures were used to test the null hypothesis:

> $H_0$5: There is no significant difference between descriptions of leadership by participants in 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes, when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII.

Results. The null hypothesis was rejected. Significant differences were found between the descriptions of leadership by the programme participants.

Sub-problem 5(a)- LBDQ - Form X11 by Sub-Scale. This sub-problem is an elaboration of sub-problem 5. Sub-problem 5(a) deals with the comparison of descriptions of leadership by each programme participant group over each LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale. Appropriate null hypotheses were developed for testing each sub-scale as part of the overall response to sub-problem 5(a). For example, the null hypothesis pertaining to the sub-scale Representation was stated as:

> $H_0$5(a)i: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by participant groups in 15 selected, municipally-operated programmes when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Representation.

Results. One-way analysis of variance procedures were utilized to test the various null hypotheses. All F ratios were highly significant. The null hypotheses for all LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales were rejected, thus supporting the findings from sub-problem 5.

Application of the Scheffé *a posteriori* contrast test revealed that significant differences were found between certain groups on four sub-scales only. The art class and the bridge class people described the difference between their leaders' leadership significantly on the sub-scale Initiating Structure. Also, the art class participant group and the participants in the ladies keep fit class described the leadership of their leaders significantly differently on Initiating Structure. A review of the raw score data indicated that the leaders of the bridge and ladies keep fit classes clearly defined their roles and clarified role expectations significantly better than did the leader of the art class. For the sub-scale Tolerance of Freedom, significantly different descriptions of leadership were found between the dog obedience class and each of the bridge, the ladies keep fit, the painting, and the art classes. The participants in the dog obedience described their leader's behaviour low on Tolerance of Freedom, whereas the other groups described their leaders high. The dog obedience class was contrasted with the art and canoe construction classes on the sub-scale Production Emphasis. For the sub-scale Predictive Accuracy, the art class was again contrasted with the bridge class. The participants in the art class did not describe their leader as exhibiting foresight and as having the ability to predict outcomes accurately, whereas the participants of the bridge class obviously thought their leader could do both.

Leader-Participant Descriptions: Analysis of Variance.

Sub-problem 6 - LBDQ - Form X11 by Sub-Scale. One other aspect examined by this study was the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by their programme participants. Sub-problem 6 addressed the question: What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in recreation programmes conducted by those recreation leaders? Null hypotheses were developed for each LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale and tested by one-way analysis of variance procedures. As an example the null hypothesis respecting the descriptions of leadership by leaders and participants on the sub-scale Representation stated:

> $H_0$6i: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by leaders and the descriptions of leadership by the participants of 15 selected, municipally-operated recreation programmes when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Representation.

Results. The resultant F ratios for each sub-scale were not significant. All null hypotheses were accepted. No significant differences were found between recreation leaders' descriptions of leadership when measured on all twelve of the LBDQ - Form Xll sub-scales. Although the leaders described their leadership differently (sub-problem 4), and although the participants described the leadership of their leaders differently (sub-problems 5, 5(a)), when the results are compared, both leaders and participants describe the leaders' leadership similarly, and, apparently, identically on the sub-scale Predictive Accuracy (F = 0.00). Overall, according to this study, the manner in which recreation leaders describe their leadership is supported by their programme participants' description of the same leadership.

Sub-problems 6(a), 6(b), 6(c), and 6(d). Sub-problems 6(a) and 6(b) were concerned with the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by experienced recreation leaders and by their programme participants and the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by less experienced recreation leaders and by their programme participants, respectively. Sub-problem 6(a) addressed the question: What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by experienced recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in recreation programmes conducted by those experienced recreation leaders? Sub-problem 6(b) addressed the question: What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by less experienced recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in recreation programmes conducted by those less experienced recreation leaders? Sub-problems 6(c) and 6(d) were concerned with the relationship between descriptions of leadership by qualified recreation leaders and the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by less qualified recreation leaders and their programme participants, respectively. Sub-problem 6(c) addressed the question: What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by qualified recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in recreation programmes conducted by those qualified recreation leaders? Sub-problem 6(d) addressed the question: What is the relationship between the descriptions of leadership by less qualified recreation leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in recreation programmes conducted by those less qualified recreation leaders?

The LBDQ - Form X11 was used to gather data pertaining to the descriptions of leadership both by the leaders and by their participants. Specific null hypotheses were developed for each of the twelve sub-scales for each set of comparisons in addressing sub-problems 6(a), 6(b), 6(c), and 6(d) and tested by one way analysis of variance procedures. As an example, the null hypothesis to be tested for sub-problem 6(a) on the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scale Representation was stated as:

> $H_0$6(a)i: There is no significant difference between the descriptions of leadership by experienced leaders and the descriptions of leadership by participants in municipally-operated recreation programmes conducted by those experienced leaders when measured on the LBDQ - Form XII sub-scale Representation.

Appropriate wording changes were made for each of the other null hypotheses developed for the remaining eleven LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales with regard to addressing sub-problem 6(a). A similar procedure was adopted for each null hypothesis developed for each sub-scale for sub-problems 6(b), 6(c), and 6(d).

Results. For sub-problem 6(a) no significant F ratios for any sub-scales were reported. All twelve null hypotheses were accepted.

Experienced leaders and participants in recreation programmes conducted by those experienced leaders described the leadership of the leaders similarly.

For sub-problem 6(b) significant F ratios were reported for the sub-scales Tolerance of Freedom, Consideration, and Superior Orientation. After examining the raw sub-scale scores of both leaders and participants, it was found that less experienced recreation leaders described their own behaviour regarding their ability to allow their participants to use their initiative, their concern for the welfare of their participants, and their relationship to their superiors significantly less favourably than did their participants. For all other sub-scale behaviours no significant differences were found.

For sub-problems 6(c) and 6(d) no significant F ratios were reported. All null hypotheses for all twelve LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales were accepted. Leaders' academic qualifications, either more or less, had no effect on the way leaders and their participants described leadership.

Comparison Between Literature Reviews and Empirical Investigations.

Sub-problem 7. Sub-problem 7 was concerned with the comparison between the results of the reviews of leadership literature and the results of the empirical investigations of this study. Sub-problem 7 addressed the question: How do the findings of the review of non-recreation leadership literature, the review of recreation leadership literature, and the empirical investigations of this study compare? Chapter 6 was devoted entirely to the results of addressing sub-problem 7.

The two reviews of literature were conducted by examining definitions of leadership and by examining theories of leadership or theoretical statements which emphasized the individual, the group, and the environment. Aspects of the two bodies of literature relating to leadership training, experience, and skills were discussed also. As the findings from the reviews of literature were reported earlier in this chapter, the findings regarding the reviews of literature and the empirical aspects of this study follow.

This study regarded the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales of Persuasion, Role Assumption, Consideration, Initiating Structure, and Production Emphasis as applying to the individual characteristics of the leader. It was found that being persuasive, exercising the leadership role, defining roles and clarifying role expectations, and being considerate were leader behaviours which were significantly related to one another. Pushing for productive output was found to be independent as a leader behaviour and contrary to the other four individual leader behaviour characteristics. Leadership behaviours pertaining to the individual appear to be in two categories. The first category refers to leading, organizing, and caring for group members. The second category contains one behaviour only: pushing for productive output.

This study considered the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales Initiating Structure, Consideration, Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Freedom, and Integration as pertaining to the group. Overall, it was found that the types of leadership behaviour associated with the above sub-scales were significantly and positively related to one another.

This study has found evidence to suggest that recreation leadership involves behaviours that are self-serving and group-serving, and that they appear to relate significantly and positively to one another. The only behaviour (pushing for productive output) found to relate negatively and significantly to the other behaviours, could be construed also as both self-serving and group-serving. The recreation leadership literature is highly supportive of normative individual characteristics and, at the same time, regards the group to be of paramount importance. The significant and positive relationships found in this study between those leader behaviours regarded as self-serving and group-serving indicate that the two types of behaviour are contrary to that reported in the recreation leadership literature. It can be noted, however, that several of the individual characteristics recommended for the recreation leader are, in effect, orientated to serving the group (flexibility, social adaptability, and good communications). These types of characteristics could be construed as achieving both group cohesiveness and group productivity.

This study regarded the LBDQ - Form X11 sub-scales Tolerance of Uncertainty, Predictive Accuracy, and Superior Orientation as pertaining to the environment. It was found that being able to predict future outcomes and having cordial relations and influence with superiors were related significantly and positively. The former was related significantly and positively to defining roles and clarifying role expectations. The latter was related significantly and positively with acting as representative of the group and tolerating group member freedom of action. Tolerating uncertainty and postponement without anxiety and upset related significantly and positively to tolerating group member freedom of action, actively exercising the leadership role, reconciling conflicting demands and maintaining a closely-knit organization. Overall, those leadership behaviours which were regarded as pertaining to the environment related to one another significantly

Age and sex were not closely associated with leadership in both sets of literature reviewed. In the empirical aspect of this study, the age range and sex variables did not correlate significantly with any LBDQ - Form Xll sub-scale.

Not much support for the relationship between academic training and leadership was found in the literature. In the empirical aspect of this study, training was associated with the leaders' scores on the LBDQ - Form Xll sub-scales Representation, Initiating Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Predictive Accuracy, and Superior Orientation. No participant sub-scale scores were significantly associated with the training characteristics of the leaders. Persuasiveness, tolerating group member freedom of action, defining roles clearly, and relating to superiors were leader behaviours which were found to be directly associated with specific training for the programmes being led. Leaders with higher academic qualifications were found to be considered as able to predict future outcomes and to relate to their superiors.

The relationship between experience and leadership in the literature was weak. Employment experience in casual and seasonal situations was directly associated with leadership behaviours oriented towards such behaviours as reconciling conflicting demands, tolerating group member freedom of action and clearly defining roles within the group. Pushing for production, relating to superiors, and the ability to predict future outcomes were leader behaviours which were directly associated with longer and permanent types of employment experiences. Leaders with greater amounts of employment experience were not inclined to be tolerant and integrative.

Overall, the findings from this study tend to support the non-recreation leadership literature rather than the normative recreation leadership literature.

Chapter 8

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This Chapter consists of the conclusions drawn from this study. Also included are recommendations for further research and suggestions for various training agencies when considering leadership in the recreation field.

The conclusions drawn from this study are outlined and discussed according to the various aspects of the study, such as the literature reviews, the empirical investigations, and the relationship between the literature reviews and the empirical investigations.

Literature Reviews

1. Overall the conceptions of leadership held by writers of recreation leadership literature are similar to those held by writers of non-recreation leadership literature. Stogdill's (1974) categorization of definitions were more than adequate to include all leadership definitions found in the review of recreation leadership literature. Undoubtedly, many leadership definitions which applied to the recreation field emanated from the non-recreation literature. There were some definitions, however, which appeared to be peculiar to the recreation literature by virtue of their composition if not by their intent (Stone, 1952; Weiskopf, 1975). Other definitions of recreation leadership were phrased in a normative manner (Douglass, 1956) whereas definitions of leadership found in the non-recreation leadership literature tended to be more descriptive.

2. Most of the writing in recreation leadership literature

emphasizes individual leader characteristics and leader behaviour in the normative vein. The trait theory of leadership tends to dominate recreation leadership literature from its early beginnings up to the present. The traits encouraged are idealistic and tend to suggest that the recreation leader is a paragon of virtue. The only type of behaviour appropriate for the recreation leader, were one to believe the recreation leadership literature, is democratic.

3. Group process theories, found in the non-recreation leadership literature appear to have had considerable influence on several of the authors of recreation leadership literature. Although these authors emphasize that recreation leadership is not group work, it may be construed that the recreation leader is involved in something akin to "missionary work", guiding and directing group members toward "desirable" goals.

4. Some authors of recreation leadership literature (Danford, 1964; Sessoms and Stevenson, 1981) recognize that recreation leadership behaviour is influenced by the environment in which the leadership takes place. They even go so far as to suggest specific training programmes which might assist leaders to cope with the many situational influences found in places of employment. As situation, interaction, and contingency theories of leadership were introduced into the non-recreation leadership literature, recreation authors were quick to add them, or their versions of them, to their own literature. To emphasize the dependency of recreation leadership literature upon research in other fields, enthusiasm for the contingency approach to leadership is waning in the non-recreation leadership literature, yet just appearing in the latest recreation texts (Sessoms and Stevenson,

1981). Although trait theory lapsed and is now reappearing in the non-recreation leadership literature, trait theory concepts have remained steadfast throughout the recreation leadership literature. Perhaps, recreation authors are secure in their approach to encouraging what they believe ought to be, yet insecure enough not to want to be considered out-of-date. For example, Edginton and Williams (1978) tend to regard recent theories of leadership as applicable to the recreation field, although these same theories are becoming somewhat passé in other fields. The resurgence of interest in trait theory by psychological and social-psychological researchers may tend to support the traditional trait theory approach prevalent in the recreation leadership literature. Writers on recreation leadership may do well to remain with their normative approach and develop their own concepts and methods of application of what "leadership" means to them, rather than attempting to justify their conceptions with reports found in the non-recreation leadership literature.

5. The possession of supervisory, managerial, administrative, technical, and human-relations skills is recognized by both sets of literature as important for leadership positions. Whereas not all writers of non-recreation leadership literature valued human relations skills highly for the leader (Farris, 1974; Perrow, 1972), most writers of recreation leadership literature regarded human-relations skills as essential for recreation leaders. This difference between the two bodies of literature emphasizes further the normative nature of recreation leadership literature or, perhaps, the peculiar nature of this body of literature. The human-relations theories of leadership

have waxed and waned in favour of other theories of leadership as has trait theory in the non-recreation leadership literature. Perhaps, the return of trait theory may herald a return of human-relations theory in non-recreation leadership literature, which might further support the recreation writers' persistence.

6. The notion that leadership skills and competencies are synonymous with the term "leadership" distinguishes recreation leadership literature from non-recreation leadership literature. Such a situation is due not to any intrinsic reason, but to the extrinsic value placed on the word "leadership". Undoubtedly, recreation courses concerned with the acquisition of skills are designed to provide the "tools of trade" and so enhance an individual "potential" leader's resources which he can bring to the group. Nevertheless, the notion that "acquisition of skills" is synonymous with leadership is a distinguishing characteristic of the recreation leadership literature.

7. In summary, leadership in the recreation literature is described as a set of desirable character traits, congenial to group members, democratic in operation, and influential in achieving desired goals. Skills required of the recreation leader are various, ranging from those required by executives of large organizations to basic technical skills required on the playground.

8. Training and experience for leaders appear to be required for all levels of recreation leadership from the executive level to the face-to-face functional level. Appropriate amounts of training and experience are recommended for each level of leadership, according to the recreation leadership literature. Training and experience,

however, were not found to be strongly associated with leadership in the non-recreation leadership literature.

Empirical Investigations

1. The LBDQ - Form XII is a suitable instrument for measuring leadership in the recreation field at the face-to-face functional level.

2. According to the empirical part of this study, Consideration was a weak factor in leadership. Such leader behaviours as Representation, Initiating Structure, Tolerance of Freedom, Production Emphasis, and Superior Orientation are stronger indicators of leadership in the recreation field. The recreation programme participants, when describing the leadership of their leaders, tended to describe them as being in control, self-assured, and task-oriented.

3. Recreation programmes which had longer individual sessions tended to encourage leaders to be considerate and more mindful of the welfare of their participants.

4. Emphasizing productive output appeared to be a leadership behaviour independent from and, at times, contrary to other leadership behaviours which tend to serve group cohesiveness purposes.

5. The leaders' age, sex, and work experience, in combination, were the best predictors of the recreation leaders' behaviour regarding Representation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Integration. Such was the case when the behaviour was described by leaders or by the participants. These same leader characteristics aided also in predicting participants' descriptions of their leaders' behaviour regarding Production Emphasis.

6. Overall, recreation leaders of different programmes, in different communities, tended to describe their leadership differently.

7. Overall, participants in different recreation programmes, in different communities, tended to describe the leadership of their leaders differently.

8. Overall, when the results were pooled, leaders and participants of recreation programmes tended to describe the leadership of the leaders similarly.

9. Leaders in this study with greater amounts of employment experience tended to describe themselves as being concerned for production output, as able to define roles clearly and clarify role expectations, and as having influence with their superiors. Their programme participants tended to describe the leadership of the leaders in a similar manner. Apparently, being able to relate to one's superiors, being able to structure the group, and emphasizing production output were hallmarks of regularly-engaged leaders in the recreation field. Such characteristics as being able to tolerate member freedom of action and initiative and to maintain a closely-knit group applied to leaders with the least amount of experience.

10. Academic qualifications for recreation leaders tended to influence them in perceiving themselves as having influence with their superiors and able to predict outcomes of situations accurately. The participants in the recreation programmes led by academically qualified leaders did not view the leadership of their leaders in the same manner. In fact, participants' descriptions of leadership and academic qualifications of leaders were not found to be related.

Literature Reviews and Empirical Observations Compared

1. There is strong encouragement in the recreation leadership

literature for recreation leaders to cater to the interests of their programme participants. Group-centred behaviour and the use of democratic principles are recommended as strong attributes for the recreation leader. Use has been made of pertinent theories of leadership, found in the non-recreation leadership literature, by the authors of recreation leadership literature to substantiate their arguments for idyllic character traits and personable democratic behaviour employed in the pursuit of desirable group goals. The results of the empirical investigations of this study indicate that what took place in practice tended to contradict what was found in the literature. The picture drawn of the practising recreation leader from the empirical investigations showed that person to be production-oriented, instrumental in developing and maintaining role expectations, on good terms and influential with superiors, and the official spokesman for the group. The manner in which the recreation leaders of this study described their behaviour was consistant with the manner in which the programme participants described the behaviour of their leaders. Apparently, the style of recreation leadership encouraged in the recreation leadership literature is not appropriate for the leader in the field. Perhaps the purpose of the literature is to encourage the various ideals espoused, whereas the purpose of the practitioner is to satisfy job requirements. The normative nature of the recreation leadership literature is quite apparent when compared to the non-recreation leadership literature and to many of the results of this study's empirical investigations.

2. Considerate leadership behaviour was not found to be a dominant type of behaviour in the recreation field. Only those leaders

who were inexperienced or who spent longer periods of time with their participants in each programme session were described as considerate of the feelings and needs of the group. Inexperience appeared to go "hand-in-hand" with idealism or, with longer periods of time available, attention was devoted to the socio-emotional aspects of the group as well as to the task at hand.

3. Those leaders who were regarded as having considerable experience, accumulated through casual employment or permanent employment, were described as structured, production-oriented, and superior-oriented, both by the leaders themselves and by their participants. This result is supported by the fact that age, sex, and work experience of the leaders were found to be predictors of such behaviours as Representation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Initiating Structure, Consideration, and Integration when the leaders described their own leadership. When the participants' descriptions were involved, the production-oriented behaviour of the leaders was emphasized. Experience of the leader may be a factor to be considered when attempting to ascertain how a recreation leader behaves in the job situation. This conclusion is not supported by the recreation leadership literature, but tends to substantiate notions found in the non-recreation leadership literature.

4. Academic training may encourage recreation leaders to consider themselves as able to predict future outcomes accurately and as having good relations with their superiors. For programme participants, however, the aspect of the academic training of the leader does not appear to influence their description of leadership. This conclusion, from the participant's point of view, supports the non-recreation leadership literature. From the leader's point of view, the conclusion

reached, in part (two out of the twelve LBDQ - Form XII sub-scales), supports the recreation leadership literature. Perhaps, academic qualifications are more applicable at other levels of leadership (i.e. executive, management/supervisory) in the recreation field rather than at the face-to-face functional level.

Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Research

The following recommendations and suggestions for further research in recreation leadership concern elaborating on the findings of this study. They have implications for the development of courses in recreation leadership, for the development of recreation leadership literature, and for a better understanding of leadership as it is practised in the recreation field.

1. The findings of this study reveal that there are two approaches to leadership: (1) that found in the non-recreation leadership literature which is descriptive and applies to task-orientated fields and (2) that found in the recreation leadership literature which is highly normative and applies to a people-orientated field. Also, the findings from the empirical investigations tend to suggest task-orientated behaviour on the part of older and more experienced leaders, and people-orientated behaviour on the part of the younger and less experienced leaders. Production-orientation also was supported by the empirical findings. As the more recent recreation leadership literature tends to depart from the normative themes of the earlier recreation literature and appears to be moving toward the more descriptive themes of the literature from other fields, recreation leadership training agencies may have to consider which body of literature they will use as a guide in the development of their training programmes.

2. As well as considering which body of literature to use as a guide for the development of training programmes, recreation leadership training agencies should be concerned with the different types of training required for each of the three levels of recreation leadership. Training and experiential qualifications required for each level of recreation leadership suggest that each training agency direct its efforts at providing appropriate course content and skill acquisition to match the knowledge and skill actually required in the field.

3. The LBDQ - Form XII was one of the instruments used to gather data pertaining to the empirical aspect of this study. At the outset (Chapter 1, pp. 5-6), the limitations of this study were outlined. These, in essence, were: (1) respondents to the questionnaire expressed their perceptions of what the leaders' behaviours were, (2) the questionnaire recorded behavioural acts at a particular point in time, and (3) the generalizability of the results of the empirical investigations is limited.

The use of the LBDQ - Form XII to examine leadership at the functional level in the recreational setting is a new use of the instrument. The purpose of its adoption in this study was to assess its applicability to the recreation field.

Heretofore, the LBDQ - Form XII has been utilized in a variety of levels of leadership in relatively formal organizations where the behaviours associated with each sub-scale are fairly readily observable. These same behaviours are observable at the face-to-face functional level of recreation leadership. It appears, however, that the technical components of "instruction" at the functional level of recreational leadership, most notable in the programmes selected for examination by this study, are not measurable through using the twelve sub-scales of the LBDQ - Form XII, other than in the ways by which "instruction" is influenced by the twelve leadership characteristics. This inability of the LBDQ - Form XII to measure the "instructional component" is a further limitation of the study.

Emanating from this study, more research should be aimed at addressing the following problems:

1. Leaders

a) Is there more appropriate terminology which could be used to describe what people are really like and what they do instead of the terms "leader" and "leadership" found in the literature and in use in the recreation field?

b) Is the term "leadership" the most appropriate term to describe the behaviour of the person who is responsible for conducting recreation programmes at the functional level? Is not "instruction" a more appropriate term for what takes place at the functional level of recreation programmes?

c) What demographic characteristics of recreation leaders are more applicable to defining recreation leadership? This study found that the age, sex, and experience of the leader were useful in predicting some types of leadership behaviour. What other characteristics are appropriate for predicting other forms of leadership behaviour?

d) To what extent is consideration a component of recreation leadership?

e) Are certain types of work experiences conducive only to certain types of leadership behaviour? Are other types of work experiences conducive to other types of leadership behaviour? Is experience necessary for any type of leadership behaviour or style?

f) What academic qualifications are more appropriate for each level of leadership in the recreation field: executive, supervisory/managerial, and functional?

g) To what extent do personality characteristics apply to each level of leadership in the recreation field?

2. Programme Participants

Not addressed specifically by this study are certain questions which pertain to the nature and motivation of recreation programme participants. Answers to the following selected questions may have direct bearing on the types of programmes offered and the styles of leadership employed.

a) Are there differences or similarities between programme participants on the basis of skill level requirements for participants?

b) Do these differences or similarities of skill level between programme participants relate to descriptions of leadership?

c) Are there certain leadership styles which attract or deter participation in recreation programmes?

d) Are participants in recreation programmes motivated primarily by production emphasis?

e) Are participants in recreation progpammes motivated primarily by individual benefits and/or group or social outcomes?

3. Programmes

The nature of recreation programmes requires further investigation than that conducted by this study:

a) Do certain recreation programmes call for a particular style of leadership?

b) Do certain recreation programmes attract a particular kind of participant whose expectations and/or perceptions of leadership differ from those of a participant enrolled in a different type of programme?

c) Is there a relationship between the duration of a recreation programme and leadership behaviour?

d) Is there a relationship between the duration of each individual session of a recreation programme and leadership behaviour?

4. Method

The use of the LBDQ - Form XII is one method of ascertaining descriptions of leadership. What other methods would be useful in examining recreation leadership? For example, would an ethnographical examination of recreation leadership within a case study methodology reveal similar or different insights compared to those revealed by use of such an instrument as the LBDQ - Form XII.

Research projects should be developed, also, which would attempt to avoid the limitations of this study by:

1. Investigating similar recreation programmes instead of diverse ones.

2. Examining the leadership behaviour of recreation leaders conducting similar recreation programmes.

3. Examining the leadership behaviour of recreation leaders at the executive, managerial, and other levels of recreation leadership.

4. Comparing the leadership behaviour of all levels of recreation leader positions with differing training, education, and experiential backgrounds.

5. Examining the consideration component of recreation leaders.

6. Examining what is meant by "production emphasis" in the recreation field at all levels of leadership.

7. Examining the "instructional component" of recreation leadership at the functional level.

8. Conducting more studies of recreation leaders, at all levels of leadership, utilizing the LBDQ - Form XII in an unmodified condition in order that the results generated may be compared.

9. Conducting comparative studies of recreation leaders at the functional level with the use of ethnographical methodologies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Leader's Demographic Questionnaire

LEADERSHIP IN RECREATION

QUESTIONNAIRE

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the overall study, of which this questionnaire is a part, is to examine descriptions of leadership in recreation by writers of recreation leadership literature and by municipal recreation leaders and their programme participants.

Purpose of the Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather supplemental information about the leaders of recreation programmes which are part of the total recreation opportunities offered by selected Alberta municipal recreation or recreation and parks departments.

Instructions

This questionnaire is to be completed by the actual leader (instructor) who is employed by the municipal recreation or recreation and parks department to conduct a programme of recreation activities.

For most of the questions, all the leader (instructor) has to do is put a tick or a cross in the box next to the appropriate answer. Some questions, however, are to be completed by writing in the appropriate details requested.

Your cooperation in completing this questionnaire will be greatly appreciated and you may rest assured that all the information you will give will be treated confidentially.

SECTION I

Details of Recreation/Parks Department Sponsoring Recreation Programme

Please Leave Blank

Punch Column

1. Name of Department ______________________________

2. Address of Department ______________________________

3. Telephone Number ______________________________

4. Name of Dept. Head ______________________________

5. Title of Dept. Head ______________________________

6. Name of Immediate Supervisor to Recreation Programme Leader (Instructor) ______________________________

7. Title of Immediate Supervisor ______________________________

SECTION II

Recreation Programme Details

Please Leave Blank

Punch Column

8. Name of Programme ______________________________

9. Duration of Programme (in Weeks) __________

10. Date Programme Commenced __________

11. Date to be Concluded __________

12. No. Sessions in Programme __________

13. Duration of Each Session (Hrs.) __________

14. No. Sessions Completed to Date __________

SECTION III Programme Leader (Instructor) Details	Please Leave Blank Punch	 Column

15. Sex of Recreation Leader (Instructor)

Male ☐ Female ☐

16. Age of Leader (Instructor)

15 - 20 Yrs. ☐ 31 - 35 Yrs. ☐
21 - 25 Yrs. ☐ 36 - 40 Yrs. ☐
26 - 30 Yrs. ☐ Over 40 Yrs. ☐

17. Type of Experience and Time Accumulated in That Experience as a Leader (Instructor) in the Recreation Field

a. Casual Employment. Yes ☐ No ☐

If "Yes," Accumulated Time:
Weeks ☐ Months ☐ Years ☐

b. Seasonal Employment. Yes ☐ No ☐

If "Yes," Accumulated Time:
Weeks ☐ Months ☐ Years ☐

c. Permanent Employment. Yes ☐ No ☐

If "Yes," Accumulated Time:
Weeks ☐ Months ☐ Years ☐

d. No Previous Experience. ☐

18. Total Amount of Time Accumulated as Experience as a Recreation Leader (Instructor) of the Type of Programme Now Being Conducted

In Weeks .... ☐
In Months .... ☐
In Years .... ☐
No Previous Experience.. ☐

19. Specific Training Received to Enable Leader (Instructor) to Conduct This Recreation Programme Yes ☐ No ☐

SECTION III (Continued)	Please Leave Blank Punch	Column

20. If You Indicated "Yes" in 19, Please Name Course(s) Completed, Location(s) Where Course(s) Completed, and Any Certification Received

Name of Course ____________________

Location ____________________

Certification ____________________

Name of Course ____________________

Location ____________________

Certification ____________________

21. Academic Qualifications of Recreation Leader (Instructor)

- Less than Grade 12 ☐
- Grade 12 ☐
- 1 Yr. of University or College ☐
- 2 Yrs. of University or College ☐
- 3 Yrs. of University ☐
- 4 Yrs. of University ☐
- More than 4 Yrs. of University ☐

22. Academic Degrees or Diplomas Held by Recreation Leader (Instructor)

- None ☐
- 1 Yr. College Diploma ☐
- 2 Yr. College Diploma ☐
- Bachelor's Degree ☐
- Master's Degree ☐
- Doctorate Degree ☐
- Other ☐

SECTION III (Continued)	Please Leave Blank Punch	Column

NOTE: If you DO hold a degree or diploma, please complete questions 23, 24 and 25 where applicable.

If you DO NOT hold a degree or diploma, you have completed the questionnaire. MANY THANKS!

23. Names of Degree(s) or Diploma(s) Held by Recreation Leader (Instructor)

College Diploma ______________

Bachelor's Degree ______________

Master's Degree ______________

Doctorate Degree ______________

Other ______________

24. Major Emphasis of Study for Degree(s) or Diploma(s) Held by Recreation Leader (Instructor)

College Diploma ______________

Bachelor's Degree ______________

Master's Degree ______________

Doctorate Degree ______________

Other ______________

25. Minor Emphasis of Study for Degree(s) or Diploma(s) Held by Recreation Leader Instructor

College Diploma ______________

(continued on next page)

SECTION III (Continued)	Please Leave Blank Punch	 Column
Bachelor's Degree ____________ Master's Degree ____________ Doctorate Degree ____________ Other ____________		

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR TAKING THE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

(Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII attached to original data distributed)

APPENDIX B

Participant's Demographic Questionnaire

LEADERSHIP IN RECREATION

QUESTIONNAIRE

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the overall study, of which this questionnaire is a part, is to examine descriptions of leadership in recreation by writers of recreation leadership literature and by municipal recreation leaders and their programme participants.

Purpose of the Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather supplemental information about the participants in recreation programmes which are part of the total recreation opportunities offered by selected Alberta municipal recreation or recreation and parks departments.

Instructions

This questionnaire is to be completed by the recreation programme participant.

For most of the questions, all the participant has to do is put a tick or a cross in the box next to the appropriate answer. Some questions, however, are to be completed by writing in the appropriate details requested.

Your cooperation in completing this questionnaire will be greatly appreciated and you may rest assured that all the information you will give will be treated confidentially.

	Questionnaire	Please Leave Blank	
		Punch	Column
1.	Your Sex Male ☐ Female ☐		
2.	Your Age in Years ________		
3.	Is this the first time you have ever participated in a recreation programme operated by a municipal recreation department? Yes ☐ No ☐		
4.	If you responded "No" in 3, approximately how many municipal programmes have you participated in? ________		
5.	Were any of the municipal recreation programmes (in question 4) the same as this one in which you are now participating? Yes ☐ No ☐		
6.	If you responded "Yes" in 5, how many? ________		

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. NOW PLEASE CONTINUE ON TO THE ATTACHED QUESTIONNAIRE TO DESCRIBE THE BEHAVIOUR OF YOUR PROGRAMME LEADER (INSTRUCTOR).

(Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII attached to original data distributed)

APPENDIX C

Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE—Form XII

Originated by staff members of
The Ohio State Leadership Studies
and revised by the
Bureau of Business Research

Purpose of the Questionnaire

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your supervisor. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. Although some items may appear similar, they express differences that are important in the description of leadership. Each item should be considered as a separate description. This is not a test of ability or consistency in making answers. Its only purpose is to make it possible for you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your supervisor.

Note: The term, "*group,*" as employed in the following items, refers to a department, division, or other unit of organization that is supervised by the person being described.

The term "*members,*" refers to all the people in the unit of organization that is supervised by the person being described.

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DIRECTIONS:

a. READ each item carefully.

b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.

c. DECIDE whether he (A) *always*, (B) *often*, (C) *occasionally*, (D) *seldom* or (E) *never* acts as described by the item.

d. DRAW A CIRCLE around *one* of the five letters (A B C D E) following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A — Always
B — Often
C — Occasionally
D — Seldom
E — Never

e. MARK your answers as shown in the examples below.

Example: He often acts as described.. A [✓ B] C D E

Example: He never acts as described.. A B C D [✓ E]

Example: He occasionally acts as described.................................. A B [✓ C] D E

---

1. He acts as the spokesman of the group.................................. A B C D E
2. He waits patiently for the results of a decision............................ A B C D E
3. He makes pep talks to stimulate the group............................... A B C D E
4. He lets group members know what is expected of them................ A B C D E
5. He allows the members complete freedom in their work................ A B C D E
6. He is hesitant about taking initiative in the group...................... A B C D E
7. He is friendly and approachable.. A B C D E
8. He encourages overtime work.. A B C D E
9. He makes accurate decisions.. A B C D E
10. He gets along well with the people above him........ .... A B C D E
11. He publicizes the activities of the group.................................. A B C D E
12. He becomes anxious when he cannot find out what is coming next...... A B C D E

A — Always
B — Often
C — Occasionally
D — Seldom
E — Never

13. His arguments are convincing A B C D E
14. He encourages the use of uniform procedures A B C D E
15. He permits the members to use their own judgment in solving problems. A B C D E
16. He fails to take necessary action A B C D E
17. He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group A B C D E
18. He stresses being ahead of competing groups A B C D E
19. He keeps the group working together as a team A B C D E
20. He keeps the group in good standing with higher authority A B C D E
21. He speaks as the representative of the group A B C D E
22. He accepts defeat in stride A B C D E
23. He argues persuasively for his point of view A B C D E
24. He tries out his ideas in the group A B C D E
25. He encourages initiative in the group members A B C D E
26. He lets other persons take away his leadership in the group A B C D E
27. He puts suggestions made by the group into operation A B C D E
28. He needles members for greater effort A B C D E
29. He seems able to predict what is coming next A B C D E
30. He is working hard for a promotion A B C D E
31. He speaks for the group when visitors are present A B C D E
32. He accepts delays without becoming upset A B C D E
33. He is a very persuasive talker A B C D E
34. He makes his attitudes clear to the group A B C D E
35. He lets the members do their work the way they think best A B C D E
36. He lets some members take advantage of him A B C D E

A — Always
B — Often
C — Occasionally
D — Seldom
E — Never

37. He treats all group members as his equals.................................... A B C D E
38. He keeps the work moving at a rapid pace.................................... A B C D E
39. He settles conflicts when they occur in the group........................ A B C D E
40. His superiors act favorably on most of his suggestions.................. A B C D E
41. He represents the group at outside meetings.................................. A B C D E
42. He becomes anxious when waiting for new developments.............. A B C D E
43. He is very skillful in an argument... A B C D E
44. He decides what shall be done and how it shall be done................ A B C D E
45. He assigns a task, then lets the members handle it........................ A B C D E
46. He is the leader of the group in name only..................................... A B C D E
47. He gives advance notice of changes.. A B C D E
48. He pushes for increased production... A B C D E
49. Things usually turn out as he predicts.. A B C D E
50. He enjoys the privileges of his position.. A B C D E
51. He handles complex problems efficiently... A B C D E
52. He is able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty...................... A B C D E
53. He is not a very convincing talker.. A B C D E
54. He assigns group members to particular tasks................................. A B C D E
55. He turns the members loose on a job, and lets them go to it........... A B C D E
56. He backs down when he ought to stand firm................................... A B C D E
57. He keeps to himself... A B C D E
58. He asks the members to work harder... A B C D E
59. He is accurate in predicting the trend of events............................... A B C D E
60. He gets his superiors to act for the welfare of the group members....... A B C D E

A — Always
B — Often
C — Occasionally
D — Seldom
E — Never

61. He gets swamped by details A B C D E

62. He can wait just so long, then blows up A B C D E

63. He speaks from a strong inner conviction A B C D E

64. He makes sure that his part in the group is understood by the group members A B C D E

65. He is reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action A B C D E

66. He lets some members have authority that he should keep A B C D E

67. He looks out for the personal welfare of group members A B C D E

68. He permits the members to take it easy in their work A B C D E

69. He sees to it that the work of the group is coordinated A B C D E

70. His word carries weight with his superiors A B C D E

71. He gets things all tangled up A B C D E

72. He remains calm when uncertain about coming events A B C D E

73. Hs is an inspiring talker A B C D E

74. He schedules the work to be done A B C D E

75. He allows the group a high degree of initiative A B C D E

76. He takes full charge when emergencies arise A B C D E

77. He is willing to make changes A B C D E

78. He drives hard when there is a job to be done A B C D E

79. He helps group members settle their differences A B C D E

80. He gets what he asks for from his superiors A B C D E

81. He can reduce a madhouse to system and order A B C D E

82. He is able to delay action until the proper time occurs A B C D E

83. He persuades others that his ideas are to their advantage A B C D E

A — Always
B — Often
C — Occasionally
D — Seldom
E — Never

84. He maintains definite standards of performance........................ A B C D E

85. He trusts the members to exercise good judgment..................... A B C D E

86. He overcomes attempts made to challenge his leadership............... A B C D E

87. He refuses to explain his actions..................................... A B C D E

88. He urges the group to beat its previous record........................ A B C D E

89. He anticipates problems and plans for them............................ A B C D E

90. He is working his way to the top...................................... A B C D E

91. He gets confused when too many demands are made of him........... A B C D E

92. He worries about the outcome of any new procedure.................. A B C D E

93. He can inspire enthusiasm for a project................................ A B C D E

94. He asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations..... A B C D E

95. He permits the group to set its own pace.............................. A B C D E

96. He is easily recognized as the leader of the group.................... A B C D E

97. He acts without consulting the group................................... A B C D E

98. He keeps the group working up to capacity............................. A B C D E

99. He maintains a closely knit group....................................... A B C D E

100. He maintains cordial relations with superiors......................... A B C D E

APPENDIX D

Manual for Administering the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire - Form XII

MANUAL

for the

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE - Form XII

An Experimental Revision

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1963

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE - Form XII

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, often referred to as LBDQ, was developed for use in obtaining descriptions of a supervisor by the group members whom he supervises. It can be used to describe the behavior of the leader, or leaders, in any type of group or organization, provided the followers have had an opportunity to observe the leader in action as a leader of their group.

Origin of the Scales

The LBDQ grew out of work initiated by Hemphill (10). Further development of the scales by the staff of the Ohio State Leadership Studies has been described by Hemphill and Coons (13). Shartle (16) has outlined the theoretical considerations underlying the descriptive method. He observed that "when the Ohio State Leadership Studies were initiated in 1945, no satisfactory theory or definition of leadership was available." It was subsequently found in empirical research that a large number of hypothesized dimensions of leader behavior could be reduced to two strongly defined factors. These were identified by Halpin and Winer (19) and Fleishman (3) as Consideration and Initiation of Structure.

The two factorially defined subscales, Consideration and Initiation of Structure, have been widely used in empirical research, particularly in military organizations (5, 6), industry (2, 3, 4), and education (6, 8, 12). Halpin (7) reports that "in several studies where the agreement among respondents in describing their respective leaders has been checked by a 'between-group vs. within-group' analysis of variance, the

F ratios all have been found significant at the .01 level. Followers tend to agree in describing the same leader, and the descriptions of different leaders differ significantly."

The Development of Form XII

It has not seemed reasonable to believe that two factors are sufficient to account for all the observable variance in leader behavior. However, as Shartle (16) observed, no theory was available to suggest additional factors. A new theory of role differentiation and group achievement by Stogdill (17), and the survey of a large body of research data that supported that theory, suggested that a number of variables operate in the differentiation of roles in social groups. Possible factors suggested by the theory are the following: tolerance of uncertainty, persuasiveness, tolerance of member freedom of action, predictive accuracy, integration of the group, and reconciliation of conflicting demands. Possible new factors suggested by the results of empirical research are the following: representation of group interests, role assumption, production emphasis, and orientation toward superiors.

Items were developed for the hypothesized subscales. Questionnaires incorporating the new items were administered to successive groups. After item analysis, the questionnaires were revised, administered again, reanalyzed, and revised.

Marder (14) reported the first use of the new scales in the study of an army airbourne division and a state highway patrol organization. Day (1) used a revised form of the questionnaire in the study of an industrial organization. Other revisions were employed by Stogdill, Goode, and Day (20, 21, 22) in the study of ministers, leaders in a community development, United States senators, and presidents of corporations. Stogdill (18) has used the new scales in the study of industrial and governmental organizations. Form XII represents the fourth revision of the questionnaire. It is subject to further revision.

Scoring Key

The subject indicates his response by drawing a circle around one of the five letters (A, B, C, D, E) following an item. As indicated on the Scoring Key, most items are scored:

A	B	C	D	E
5	4	3	2	1

A circle around A gives the item a score of 5; a circle around B gives it a score of 4; and a circle around E gives the item a score of 1.

The 20 starred items on the Scoring Key are scored in the reverse direction, as follows:

A	B	C	D	E
1	2	3	4	5

In use at the Bureau of Business Research, the score is written after each item in the margin of the test booklet (questionnaire).

Record Sheet: Scoring the Subscales

The assignment of items to different subscales is indicated in the Record Sheet. For example, the Representation subscale consists of items 1, 11, 21, 31, and 41. The sum of the scores for these five items constitutes the score for the subscale Representation. The score for Demand Reconciliation consists of the sum of the scores assigned to items 51, 61, 71, 81, and 91. The score for Tolerance of Uncertainty consists of the sum of the scores on items 2, 12, 22, 32, 42, 52, 62, 72, 82, and 92.

By transferring the item scores from the test booklet to the Scoring Sheet, it is possible to add the item scores quickly to obtain an accurate score for each subscale.

SCORING KEY LBDQ - FORM XII

*Starred items are scored 1 2 3 4 5
All other items are scored 5 4 3 2 1

1.
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89.
90.
*91.
*92.
93.
94.
95.
96.
*97.
98.
99.
100.

RECORD SHEET LBDQ - FORM XII

											Total
1. Representation	1 __	11 __	21 __	31 __	41 __						( )
2. Reconciliation						51 __	61 __	71 __	81 __	91 __	( )
3. Tolerance Uncertainty	2 __	12 __	22 __	32 __	42 __	52 __	62 __	72 __	82 __	92 __	( )
4. Persuasion	3 __	13 __	23 __	33 __	43 __	53 __	63 __	73 __	83 __	93 __	( )
5. Structure	4 __	14 __	24 __	34 __	44 __	54 __	64 __	74 __	84 __	94 __	( )
6. Tolerance Freedom	5 __	15 __	25 __	35 __	45 __	55 __	65 __	75 __	85 __	95 __	( )
7. Role Assumption	6 __	16 __	26 __	36 __	46 __	56 __	66 __	76 __	86 __	96 __	( )
8. Consideration	7 __	17 __	27 __	37 __	47 __	57 __	67 __	77 __	87 __	97 __	( )
9. Production Emphasis	8 __	18 __	28 __	38 __	48 __	58 __	68 __	78 __	88 __	98 __	( )
10. Predictive Accuracy	9 __		29 __		49 __	59 __			89 __		( )
11. Integration		19 __		39 __			69 __	79 __		99 __	( )
12. Superior Orientation	10 __	20 __	30 __	40 __	50 __	60 __	70 __	80 __	90 __	100 __	( )

Subscale Means and Standard Deviations

There are no norms for the LBDQ. The questionnaire was designed for use as a research device. It is not recommended for use in selection, assignment, or assessment purposes.

The means and standard deviations for several highly selected samples are shown in Table 1. The samples consist of commissioned and noncommissioned officers in an army combat division, the administrative officers in a state highway patrol headquarters office, the executives in an aircraft engineering staff, ministers of various denominations of an Ohio community, leaders in community development activities throughout the state of Ohio, presidents of "successful" corporations, presidents of labor unions, presidents of colleges and universities, and United States senators.

Reliability of the Subscales

The reliability of the subscales was determined by a modified Kuder-Richardson formula. The modification consists in the fact that each item was correlated with the remainder of the items in its subscale rather than with the subscale score including the item. This procedure yields a conservative estimate of subscale reliability. The reliability coefficients are shown in Table 2.

Administering the LBDQ

The LBDQ is usually employed by followers to describe the behaviors of their leader or supervisor. However, the questionnaire can be used by peers or superiors to describe a given leader whom they

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations

Subscale	Army Division		Highway Patrol		Aircraft		Ministers		Community Leaders		Corporation Presidents		Labor Presidents		College Presidents		Senators	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1. Representation	20.0	3.0	19.9	2.8	19.8	2.8	20.4	2.4	19.6	2.4	20.5	1.8	22.2	2.2	21.4	1.9	20.7	2.5
2. Demand Reconciliation					19.2	2.8	19.8	3.1	19.7	3.3	20.6	2.7	21.5	3.2			20.7	3.5
3. Tolerance Uncertainty	36.2	4.7	35.6	4.6	33.2	6.2	37.5	6.3	37.7	5.6	35.9	5.4	40.4	5.6	37.2	5.5	35.3	7.6
4. Persuasiveness	38.3	6.2	37.9	5.9	36.5	5.5	42.1	4.7	39.5	5.5	40.1	4.2	43.1	4.8	41.1	4.2	42.5	4.6
5. Initiating Structure	38.6	5.7	39.7	4.5	36.6	5.4	38.7	4.9	37.2	5.7	38.5	5.0	38.3	5.6	37.7	4.2	38.8	5.5
6. Tolerance Freedom	35.9	6.5	36.3	5.3	38.0	5.9	37.5	6.0	36.4	5.0	38.9	4.9	38.0	4.0	39.6	3.9	36.6	6.2
7. Role Assumption	42.7	6.1	42.7	5.3	40.9	5.6	41.5	5.4	39.8	5.6	42.7	3.5	43.3	5.5	43.5	4.5	41.0	5.7
8. Consideration	37.1	5.6	36.9	6.5	37.1	5.8	42.5	5.8	41.1	4.7	41.5	4.0	42.3	5.5	41.3	4.1	41.1	5.9
9. Production Emphasis	36.3	5.1	35.8	5.7	36.1	5.6	34.9	5.1	35.4	6.8	38.9	4.4	36.0	5.0	36.2	5.0	41.2	5.2
10. Predictive Accuracy	36.2	4.2	35.6	4.2	38.3	5.1	41.0	4.6	39.5	4.9	40.1	3.6	41.7	4.0				
11. Integration	39.0	5.1	38.2	5.3														
12. Superior Orientation	39.9	4.9	39.1	5.1	38.6	4.2					43.2	3.1			42.9	2.9		
Number of Cases	235		185		165		103		57		55		44		55		44	

Table 2. Reliability Coefficients (Modified Kuder-Richardson)

	Subscale	Army Division	Highway Patrol	Aircraft Executives	Ministers	Community Leaders	Corporation Presidents	Labor Presidents	College Presidents	Senators
1.	Representation	.82	.85	.74	.55	.59	.54	.70	.66	.80
2.	Demand Reconciliation			.73	.77	.58	.59	.81		.81
3.	Tolerance Uncertainty	.58	.66	.82	.84	.85	.79	.82	.80	.83
4.	Persuasiveness	.84	.85	.84	.77	.79	.69	.80	.76	.82
5.	Initiating Structure	.79	.75	.78	.70	.72	.77	.78	.80	.72
6.	Tolerance Freedom	.81	.79	.86	.75	.86	.84	.58	.73	.64
7.	Role Assumption	.85	.84	.84	.75	.83	.57	.86	.75	.65
8.	Consideration	.76	.87	.84	.85	.77	.78	.83	.76	.85
9.	Production Emphasis	.70	.79	.79	.59	.79	.71	.65	.74	.38
10.	Predictive Accuracy	.76	.82	.91	.83	.62	.84	.87		
11.	Integration	.73	.79							
12.	Superior Orientation	.64	.75	.81			.66		.60	

know well enough to describe accurately. With proper changes in instructions, the questionnaire can also be used by a leader to describe his own behavior.

The questionnaire can be administered individually or in groups. It is usually not necessary for the person making the description to write his name on the test booklet. However, the name of the leader being described should be written on the test booklet. It is necessary to identify the person being described whenever it is desired to add together (and obtain an average of) the descriptions of several describers.

How many describers are required to provide a satisfactory index score of the leader's behavior? Halpin (7) suggests that "a minimum of four respondents per leader is desirable, and additional respondents beyond ten do not increase significantly the stability of the index scores. Six or seven respondents per leader would be a good standard."

In explaining the purpose and nature of a research project to a group of respondents, it has not been found necessary to caution them about honesty or frankness. It has been found sufficient to say, "All that is required is for you to describe your supervisor's behavior as accurately as possible." Whenever possible to do so, it is desirable to assure the respondents that their descriptions will not be seen by any of the persons whom they are asked to describe.

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APPENDIX E

Leaders' Raw and Standardized LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scale Scores

Leaders' Raw LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scale Scores

Group	Raw Sub-Scale Scores											
1. Macrame	18.00	20.00	39.00	31.00	36.00	36.00	39.00	40.00	23.00	15.00	21.00	28.00
2. Bridge	23.00	17.00	38.00	47.00	41.00	43.00	48.00	31.00	41.00	24.00	20.00	39.00
3. Ladies' Keep Fit	19.00	18.00	41.00	34.00	43.00	38.00	44.00	46.00	40.00	20.00	23.00	23.00
4. Social Dancing	15.00	20.00	35.00	39.00	39.00	35.00	37.00	38.00	34.00	19.00	19.00	31.00
5. Adult Swimming	21.00	22.00	39.00	38.00	42.00	41.00	41.00	42.00	34.00	21.00	19.00	41.00
6. Painting	25.00	25.00	48.00	45.00	50.00	50.00	45.00	47.00	28.00	24.00	25.00	44.00
7. Jive and Disco Dance	24.00	19.00	39.00	38.00	38.00	38.00	39.00	39.00	33.00	18.00	21.00	34.00
8. Women's Physical Culture	18.00	22.00	41.00	41.00	37.00	48.00	39.00	46.00	29.00	20.00	21.00	43.00
9. Community Band	21.00	13.00	21.00	33.00	41.00	33.00	28.00	33.00	45.00	20.00	20.00	41.00
10. Canoe Construction	15.00	24.00	34.00	41.00	37.00	37.00	47.00	41.00	29.00	16.00	16.00	25.00
11. Art	21.00	21.00	41.00	40.00	36.00	43.00	40.00	44.00	34.00	20.00	21.00	34.00
12. Swim Instruction	19.00	25.00	47.00	42.00	45.00	42.00	44.00	50.00	36.00	24.00	25.00	41.00
13. Golf	17.00	23.00	36.00	26.00	33.00	37.00	32.00	33.00	32.00	18.00	18.00	31.00
14. Lifesaving	17.00	17.00	33.00	37.00	40.00	38.00	42.00	42.00	37.00	20.00	18.00	34.00
15. Dog Obedience	23.00	18.00	32.00	45.00	44.00	43.00	43.00	45.00	47.00	16.00	22.00	36.00

Leaders' Standardized LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scale Scores

Group	Standardized Sub-Scale Scores											
1. Macrame	44.30	49.18	52.24	36.36	40.07	40.99	47.03	47.90	31.19	33.02	51.66	38.91
2. Bridge	60.73	39.96	50.64	65.58	52.08	56.25	64.46	31.20	59.88	65.76	47.52	56.34
3. Ladies' Keep Fit	47.59	43.04	55.43	41.84	56.89	45.35	56.72	59.03	58.29	51.21	59.93	30.99
4. Social Dancing	34.45	49.18	45.85	50.97	47.28	38.81	43.16	44.19	48.72	47.57	43.38	43.66
5. Adult Swimming	54.16	55.32	52.24	49.15	54.49	51.89	50.90	51.61	48.72	54.85	43.38	59.50
6. Painting	67.30	64.54	66.62	61.93	73.71	71.51	58.65	60.88	39.16	65.76	68.21	64.25
7. Jive and Disco Dance	64.02	46.11	52.24	49.15	44.87	45.35	47.03	46.04	47.13	43.94	51.66	48.42
8. Women's Physical Culture	44.30	55.32	55.43	54.63	42.47	67.15	47.03	59.03	40.76	51.21	51.66	62.67
9. Community Band	54.16	27.68	23.48	40.02	52.08	34.45	25.72	34.91	66.26	51.21	47.52	59.50
10. Canoe Construction	34.45	61.47	44.25	54.63	42.47	43.17	62.53	49.75	40.76	36.66	30.97	34.16
11. Art	54.16	52.25	55.43	52.80	40.07	56.25	48.97	55.32	48.72	51.21	51.66	48.42
12. Swim Instruction	47.59	64.54	65.02	56.45	61.70	54.07	56.72	66.45	51.91	65.76	68.21	59.50
13. Golf	41.02	58.40	47.44	27.23	32.86	43.17	33.47	34.91	45.54	43.94	39.24	43.66
14. Lifesaving	41.02	39.96	42.65	47.32	49.68	45.35	52.84	51.61	53.51	51.21	39.24	48.42
15. Dog Obedience	60.73	43.04	41.05	61.93	59.29	56.25	54.78	57.17	69.45	36.66	55.79	51.58

APPENDIX F

Participants' Raw and Standardized LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scale Scores

Participants' Raw LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scale Scores

Group	Raw Sub-Scale Scores											
1. Macrame	19.70	20.90	38.50	38.60	38.60	42.80	41.00	44.40	31.40	18.40	20.60	36.80
2. Bridge	21.70	22.70	41.60	45.10	45.60	43.20	43.30	44.50	37.00	23.10	23.10	40.30
3. Ladies' Keep Fit	22.80	22.90	44.80	42.00	45.40	44.20	45.90	46.80	39.20	21.50	23.40	42.10
4. Social Dancing	19.70	21.10	40.90	41.70	43.60	42.00	42.70	44.10	36.90	19.30	22.10	37.80
5. Adult Swimming	19.20	20.40	36.70	39.60	39.90	38.00	40.30	39.50	35.50	19.10	20.70	35.90
6. Painting	20.50	24.00	43.63	43.88	42.13	44.75	44.75	45.25	32.50	21.63	21.75	38.75
7. Jive and Disco Dance	20.80	20.60	38.70	40.50	39.70	40.40	42.70	42.60	36.20	18.20	22.70	37.00
8. Women's Physical Culture	22.60	21.40	42.80	43.90	42.90	41.30	45.00	43.30	38.00	20.80	21.30	37.90
9. Community Band	19.20	20.10	38.30	39.70	39.50	38.90	39.40	42.60	34.20	19.50	20.00	36.10
10. Canoe Construction	19.78	22.33	41.89	38.78	39.56	41.11	44.00	43.89	29.00	20.67	21.67	38.89
11. Art	19.80	22.60	42.60	41.00	33.60	45.40	43.80	43.30	28.10	16.50	17.70	32.60
12. Swim Instruction	19.50	20.80	40.00	37.50	41.60	37.20	43.20	41.40	34.70	18.30	21.00	39.10
13. Golf	19.10	19.40	37.50	36.70	38.50	35.90	37.90	38.70	35.80	18.50	18.90	35.40
14. Lifesaving	17.89	19.11	38.33	39.44	39.11	36.78	40.11	41.89	33.22	19.22	19.44	32.22
15. Dog Obedience	20.10	21.10	36.10	41.60	43.50	33.40	42.60	42.90	42.00	20.40	21.80	36.00

Participants' Standardized LBDQ - Form XII Sub-Scale Scores

Group	Standardized Sub-Scale Scores											
1. Macrame	46.46	47.00	43.56	41.13	42.43	57.13	43.39	56.91	40.18	42.15	46.87	48.73
2. Bridge	61.92	60.62	55.61	69.02	65.67	58.29	53.92	57.40	55.83	71.11	63.26	62.49
3. Ladies' Keep Fit	70.43	62.13	68.04	55.72	65.00	61.21	65.82	68.82	61.97	61.25	65.23	69.56
4. Social Dancing	46.46	48.52	52.89	54.43	59.03	54.79	51.17	55.42	55.55	47.69	56.70	52.66
5. Atult Swimming	42.60	43.22	36.57	45.42	46.75	43.13	40.19	32.58	51.63	46.46	47.53	45.19
6. Painting	52.65	70.45	63.48	63.77	54.13	62.81	60.55	61.13	43.25	62.02	54.41	56.39
7. Jive and Disco Dance	54.97	44.73	44.34	49.29	46.09	50.13	51.17	47.97	53.59	40.92	60.64	49.51
8. Women's Physical Culture	68.88	50.78	60.27	63.87	56.71	52.75	61.70	51.45	58.62	56.94	51.46	53.05
9. Community Band	42.60	40.95	42.79	45.85	45.42	45.76	36.07	47.97	48.00	48.93	42.94	45.97
10. Canoe Construction	47.06	57.84	56.73	41.90	45.61	52.20	57.12	54.37	33.48	56.12	53.86	56.94
11. Art	47.23	59.86	59.49	51.43	25.84	64.71	56.21	51.45	30.96	30.44	27.86	32.21
12. Swim Instruction	44.91	46.25	49.39	36.41	52.39	40.80	53.46	42.02	49.40	41.53	49.49	57.77
13. Golf	41.82	35.66	39.68	32.98	42.10	37.01	29.20	28.61	52.47	42.76	35.73	43.22
14. Lifesaving	32.46	33.47	42.92	44.76	44.13	39.57	39.32	44.44	45.27	47.21	39.30	30.73
15. Dog Obedience	49.55	48.52	34.24	54.01	58.70	29.72	50.71	49.46	69.79	54.47	54.74	45.58

APPENDIX G

Correlation Matrix

Correlations Between Programme and Leader Characteristics and Leader and Group LBDQ - Form XII Subscale Scores

	VAR1	VAR2	VAR3	VAR4	VAR5	VAR6	VAR7	VAR8	VAR9	VAR10	VAR11
VAR1	1.00										
VAR2	0.70										
VAR3	0.12	0.34									
VAR4	0.88	0.75	0.29								
VAR5	-0.22	-0.76	-0.22	-0.25							
VAR6	0.26	0.31	0.24	0.45	-0.10						
VAR7	-0.16	0.22	0.03	-0.04	0.26	-0.05					
VAR8	-0.21	-0.22	-0.07	-0.15	0.34	0.07	-0.26				
VAR9	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00			
VAR10	0.08	-0.07	-0.22	-0.04	0.09	0.31	-0.30	-0.21	99.00		
VAR11	-0.32	-0.41	0.05	-0.33	-0.07	-0.34	-0.34	0.36	99.00	0.09	
VAR12	-0.09	-0.13	0.22	-0.08	-0.27	0.24	0.43	-0.12	99.00	-0.14	-0.30
VAR13	0.07	-0.01	-0.33	-0.01	-0.25	0.25	-0.18	-0.13	99.00	0.35	-0.32
VAR14	-0.09	0.15	-0.28	0.11	0.29	0.25	0.52	-0.14	99.00	-0.16	-0.35
VAR15	-0.70	-0.46	-0.12	-0.61	0.42	0.09	0.24	0.17	99.00	0.05	0.03
VAR16	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00
VAR17	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00
VAR18	0.95	0.67	0.21	0.92	-0.34	0.19	-0.19	-0.14	99.00	-0.05	-0.24
VAR19	-0.08	-0.12	-0.05	-0.07	0.25	-0.55	0.44	-0.12	99.00	-0.13	0.25
VAR20	-0.06	-0.28	0.19	-0.20	-0.12	-0.15	0.24	0.41	99.00	-0.23	-0.08
VAR21	0.08	0.00	0.33	0.01	-0.29	0.26	-0.16	-0.12	99.00	0.34	-0.29
VAR22	0.40	0.33	-0.06	0.45	0.12	0.62	0.19	-0.28	99.00	0.52	-0.37
VAR23	-0.08	-0.12	-0.05	-0.07	0.25	-0.55	0.44	-0.12	99.00	-0.13	0.25
VAR24	-0.29	-0.41	-0.28	-0.33	-0.04	-0.69	-0.02	-0.19	99.00	-0.25	0.26
VAR25	0.45	0.37	0.28	0.42	0.00	0.66	0.00	-0.04	99.00	0.42	-0.37
VAR26	0.38	0.08	-0.35	0.25	-0.41	0.19	0.03	0.09	99.00	-0.07	-0.21
VAR27	0.51	0.16	-0.27	0.40	-0.48	0.21	0.01	0.06	99.00	-0.09	-0.23
VAR28	0.42	0.06	-0.26	0.26	-0.55	0.12	-0.07	0.12	99.00	-0.05	-0.13
VAR29	0.42	0.06	-0.26	0.26	-0.55	0.12	-0.07	0.12	99.00	-0.05	-0.13
VAR30	0.38	0.06	-0.33	0.27	-0.46	0.18	0.04	0.08	99.00	-0.09	-0.20
VAR31	0.26	0.04	-0.14	0.10	0.14	-0.06	0.50	-0.09	99.00	0.24	-0.13
VAR32	-0.60	-0.54	-0.06	-0.52	-0.21	0.15	0.14	-0.05	99.00	-0.04	-0.13
VAR33	-0.57	-0.43	-0.25	-0.68	0.09	-0.13	0.40	0.02	99.00	-0.08	-0.27
VAR34	-0.14	-0.22	0.17	-0.20	-0.09	0.20	0.03	0.02	99.00	0.38	0.13
VAR35	0.16	0.29	0.08	0.17	-0.16	0.51	0.45	-0.29	99.00	0.31	-0.42
VAR36	-0.28	-0.36	-0.12	-0.40	0.11	0.17	0.21	0.04	99.00	0.27	-0.21
VAR37	-0.54	-0.22	0.26	-0.47	0.07	0.12	0.20	0.03	99.00	0.15	0.10
VAR38	-0.27	-0.07	0.01	-0.29	0.37	0.47	0.26	0.14	99.00	0.31	-0.40
VAR39	0.55	0.56	-0.07	0.45	-0.03	0.21	-0.10	-0.05	99.00	0.52	0.18
VAR40	0.17	0.15	-0.25	0.07	-0.36	0.15	0.24	-0.03	99.00	-0.11	-0.31
VAR41	0.14	0.10	-0.22	-0.11	0.07	0.09	0.35	-0.16	99.00	0.34	-0.54
VAR42	0.33	-0.09	-0.38	0.24	-0.15	0.28	0.05	-0.13	99.00	0.24	-0.34
VAR43	-0.10	0.18	0.19	-0.27	0.17	-0.40	0.31	-0.32	99.00	0.03	-0.25
VAR44	-0.14	0.01	0.49	-0.27	-0.14	-0.02	0.31	0.03	99.00	-0.09	-0.14
VAR45	-0.11	0.15	0.47	-0.24	-0.14	-0.11	0.19	0.14	99.00	-0.38	-0.19
VAR46	-0.03	0.00	0.18	-0.21	0.08	-0.20	0.21	-0.07	99.00	0.02	-0.03
VAR47	-0.10	0.26	0.07	-0.10	-0.19	-0.08	0.18	-0.69	99.00	0.30	0.30
VAR48	-0.07	0.00	0.38	-0.22	-0.02	-0.35	0.26	0.25	99.00	-0.62	0.18
VAR49	-0.24	0.03	0.41	-0.37	0.11	-0.04	0.27	0.01	99.00	0.06	-0.15
VAR50	0.01	0.24	0.60	-0.12	0.04	-0.14	0.16	-0.01	99.00	-0.12	-0.15
VAR51	-0.00	0.20	-0.34	-0.09	0.16	-0.16	0.16	-0.59	99.00	0.56	-0.04
VAR52	-0.05	0.28	0.41	0.03	-0.27	0.06	0.16	-0.52	99.00	0.09	-0.12
VAR53	-0.19	0.21	0.28	-0.13	-0.09	-0.25	0.42	-0.68	99.00	0.12	-0.11
VAR54	-0.08	0.32	0.32	-0.08	-0.34	-0.16	0.31	-0.68	99.00	0.01	-0.36

Table 15

(Continued)

Legend

VAR1 = duration of programme
VAR2 = number of programme sessions
VAR3 = duration of each session
VAR4 = number of sessions completed
VAR5 = sex of leader
VAR6 = age range of leader
VAR7 = any casual employment?
VAR8 = amount of casual employment (weeks)
VAR9 = amount of casual employment (months)

	VAR12	VAR13	VAR14	VAR15	VAR16	VAR17	VAR18	VAR19	VAR20	VAR21	VAR22
VAR1											
VAR2											
VAR3											
VAR4											
VAR5											
VAR6											
VAR7											
VAR8											
VAR9											
VAR10											
VAR11											
VAR12											
VAR13	-0.09										
VAR14	-0.09	-0.10									
VAR15	0.11	0.12	0.10								
VAR16	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00							
VAR17	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00	99.00						
VAR18	-0.09	-0.09	-0.07	-0.80	99.00	99.00					
VAR19	-0.08	-0.08	-0.09	0.10	99.00	99.00	-0.08				
VAR20	0.80	-0.14	-0.15	0.18	99.00	99.00	-0.15	-0.13			
VAR21	-0.08	0.99	-0.10	0.10	99.00	99.00	-0.08	-0.07	-0.13		
VAR22	0.27	-0.08	0.37	-0.21	99.00	99.00	0.36	-0.25	0.02	-0.09	
VAR23	-0.07	-0.08	-0.09	0.10	99.00	99.00	-0.08	1.00	-0.13	-0.07	-0.25
VAR24	-0.13	-0.18	-0.20	0.24	99.00	99.00	-0.19	0.44	-0.15	-0.16	-0.55
VAR25	0.34	0.05	0.01	-0.27	99.00	99.00	0.36	-0.37	0.23	0.00	0.79
VAR26	0.27	0.18	0.26	-0.43	99.00	99.00	0.35	-0.32	0.35	0.19	0.27
VAR27	0.24	0.23	0.22	-0.50	99.00	99.00	0.47	-0.25	0.31	0.26	0.24
VAR28	0.30	0.28	-0.00	-0.46	99.00	99.00	0.37	-0.24	0.40	0.32	0.10
VAR29	0.30	0.28	-0.00	-0.46	99.00	99.00	0.37	-0.24	0.40	0.32	0.10
VAR30	0.27	0.25	0.24	-0.42	99.00	99.00	0.34	-0.25	0.35	0.29	0.19
VAR31	0.45	-0.08	0.10	-0.29	99.00	99.00	0.16	0.37	0.38	-0.06	0.48
VAR32	0.39	0.41	0.08	0.63	99.00	99.00	-0.64	-0.10	0.39	0.39	-0.23
VAR33	0.45	0.42	0.07	0.51	99.00	99.00	-0.70	0.06	0.45	0.40	-0.25
VAR34	0.30	0.19	-0.07	-0.11	99.00	99.00	-0.10	-0.02	0.29	0.17	-0.29
VAR35	0.62	0.29	0.16	-0.08	99.00	99.00	0.07	-0.14	0.33	0.31	0.60
VAR36	0.56	0.17	0.01	0.18	99.00	99.00	-0.38	-0.12	0.52	0.11	0.34
VAR37	0.23	0.17	0.04	0.19	99.00	99.00	-0.58	-0.08	0.18	0.18	-0.06
VAR38	0.29	0.47	0.08	0.66	99.00	99.00	-0.49	-0.11	0.31	0.44	0.19
VAR39	-0.32	0.02	0.02	-0.51	99.00	99.00	0.48	-0.08	-0.35	0.05	0.50
VAR40	0.40	0.43	0.14	-0.33	99.00	99.00	0.11	-0.16	0.30	0.42	0.18
VAR41	0.49	0.50	-0.13	0.10	99.00	99.00	-0.08	0.04	0.40	0.49	0.26
VAR42	0.36	0.30	0.16	-0.31	99.00	99.00	0.28	-0.04	0.22	0.25	0.59
VAR43	0.06	-0.07	-0.09	-0.09	99.00	99.00	-0.14	0.13	-0.01	-0.14	-0.02
VAR44	0.54	-0.10	-0.12	-0.03	99.00	99.00	-0.19	-0.14	0.63	-0.10	-0.03
VAR45	0.35	0.02	-0.27	0.03	99.00	99.00	-0.17	-0.15	0.47	-0.02	-0.31
VAR46	0.35	-0.31	-0.10	-0.29	99.00	99.00	-0.02	-0.02	0.31	-0.36	0.26
VAR47	0.10	0.09	-0.01	-0.22	99.00	99.00	-0.05	-0.10	-0.30	0.06	0.27
VAR48	0.36	-0.24	-0.13	-0.08	99.00	99.00	-0.07	0.00	0.57	-0.25	-0.41
VAR49	0.27	0.13	-0.19	0.20	99.00	99.00	-0.35	0.03	0.34	0.09	-0.09
VAR50	0.31	-0.21	-0.37	-0.11	99.00	99.00	-0.02	-0.05	0.32	-0.21	-0.12
VAR51	-0.20	0.01	0.11	-0.08	99.00	99.00	-0.03	0.10	-0.51	-0.02	0.43
VAR52	0.31	-0.20	-0.04	-0.39	99.00	99.00	0.07	-0.24	-0.06	-0.23	0.32
VAR53	0.11	-0.01	0.01	-0.12	99.00	99.00	-0.13	0.28	-0.24	-0.01	0.06
VAR54	0.17	0.22	-0.03	-0.17	99.00	99.00	-0.05	-0.01	-0.13	0.21	-0.07

Table 15

(Continued)

Legend (continued)

VAR10 = amount of casual employment (years)
VAR11 = any seasonal employment?
VAR12 = amount of seasonal employment (weeks)
VAR13 = " " " (months)
VAR14 = " " " (years)
VAR15 = any permanent employment?
VAR16 = amount of permanent employment (weeks)
VAR17 = " " " (months)
VAR18 = " " " (years)
VAR19 = no previous employment
VAR20 = accumulated employment in this type of programme (weeks)
VAR21 = " " " " " (months)
VAR22 = " " " " " (years)
VAR23 = no previous employment in this type of programme
VAR24 = any specific training in this type of programme?
VAR25 = training location (in Alberta/out Alberta/various)
VAR26 = type of academic qualifications
VAR27 = highest level of degree held
VAR28 = name of degree held
VAR29 = major study emphasis

	VAR23	VAR24	VAR25	VAR26	VAR27	VAR28	VAR29	VAR30	VAR31	VAR32	VAR33
VAR1											
VAR2											
VAR3											
VAR4											
VAR5											
VAR6											
VAR7											
VAR8											
VAR9											
VAR10											
VAR11											
VAR12											
VAR13											
VAR14											
VAR15											
VAR16											
VAR17											
VAR18											
VAR19											
VAR20											
VAR21											
VAR22											
VAR23											
VAR24	0.44										
VAR25	-0.37	-0.83									
VAR26	-0.32	-0.32	0.28								
VAR27	-0.25	-0.27	0.23	0.97							
VAR28	-0.24	-0.23	0.19	0.94	0.96						
VAR29	-0.24	-0.23	0.19	0.94	0.96	1.00					
VAR30	-0.25	-0.26	0.18	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.97				
VAR31	0.37	-0.24	0.39	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.38	0.39			
VAR32	-0.10	0.04	-0.11	0.12	0.67	0.14	0.14	0.17	-0.16		
VAR33	0.06	-0.03	-0.10	0.12	0.03	0.14	0.14	0.15	0.20	0.73	
VAR34	-0.02	-0.55	0.50	0.06	-0.00	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.44	0.16	0.31
VAR35	-0.14	-0.53	0.57	0.23	0.22	0.21	0.21	0.23	0.54	0.07	0.30
VAR36	-0.12	-0.48	0.56	0.31	0.16	0.23	0.23	0.23	0.50	0.47	0.66
VAR37	-0.08	-0.44	0.14	-0.18	-0.24	-0.16	-0.16	-0.15	0.17	0.35	0.56
VAR38	-0.11	-0.41	0.36	-0.19	-0.25	-0.22	-0.22	-0.20	0.06	0.50	0.61
VAR39	-0.08	-0.41	0.39	0.18	0.20	0.15	0.15	0.14	0.30	-0.66	-0.51
VAR40	-0.16	-0.48	0.33	0.68	0.62	0.64	0.64	0.65	0.39	0.14	0.45
VAR41	0.04	-0.21	0.34	0.20	0.19	0.27	0.27	0.21	0.57	0.18	0.60
VAR42	-0.04	-0.38	0.58	0.61	0.56	0.51	0.51	0.55	0.54	0.07	0.14
VAR43	0.13	-0.16	0.22	-0.14	-0.24	-0.18	-0.18	-0.22	0.25	-0.01	0.36
VAR44	-0.14	-0.36	0.32	0.10	0.05	0.14	0.14	0.09	0.35	0.28	0.50
VAR45	-0.15	-0.29	0.19	0.00	-0.07	0.05	0.05	-0.04	-0.04	0.24	0.48
VAR46	-0.02	-0.33	0.45	0.05	-0.08	-0.04	-0.04	-0.07	0.46	-0.19	0.20
VAR47	-0.10	-0.16	0.23	-0.17	-0.24	-0.22	-0.22	-0.24	0.11	-0.14	0.11
VAR48	-0.00	-0.01	-0.07	0.04	0.01	0.08	0.08	0.03	0.10	0.10	0.41
VAR49	0.03	-0.38	0.31	-0.24	-0.32	-0.22	-0.22	-0.28	0.17	0.27	0.55
VAR50	-0.05	-0.17	0.19	-0.37	-0.37	-0.28	-0.28	-0.39	0.12	-0.18	0.18
VAR51	0.10	0.03	0.16	-0.15	-0.24	-0.27	-0.27	-0.25	0.20	-0.31	-0.10
VAR52	-0.24	-0.40	0.45	-0.02	-0.09	-0.07	-0.07	-0.09	0.19	-0.13	0.02
VAR53	0.28	-0.00	0.03	-0.39	-0.39	-0.38	-0.38	-0.38	0.21	-0.08	0.18
VAR54	-0.01	-0.09	0.06	-0.11	-0.10	-0.06	-0.06	-0.09	0.06	0.16	0.33

Table 15

(Continued)

Legend (Continued)

VAR30 = minor study emphasis
VAR31 = leader score Representation
VAR32 = " " Demand Reconciliation
VAR33 = " " Tolerance of Uncertainty
VAR34 = " " Persuasion
VAR35 = " " Initiating Structure
VAR36 = " " Tolerance of Freedom
VAR37 = " " Role Assumption
VAR38 = " " Consideration
VAR39 = " " Production Emphasis
VAR40 = " " Predictive Accuracy
VAR41 = " " Integration
VAR42 = " " Superior Orientation
VAR43 = group score Representation
VAR44 = " " Demand Reconciliation
VAR45 = " " Tolerance of Uncertainty
VAR46 = " " Persuasion
VAR47 = " " Initiating Structure
VAR48 = " " Tolerance of Freedom
VAR49 = " " Role Assumption
VAR50 = " " Consideration
VAR51 = " " Production Emphasis
VAR52 = " " Predictive Accuracy
VAR53 = " " Integration
VAR54 = " " Superior Orientation

	VAR34	VAR35	VAR36	VAR37	VAR38	VAR39	VAR40	VAR41	VAR42	VAR43	VAR44
VAR1											
VAR2											
VAR3											
VAR4											
VAR5											
VAR6											
VAR7											
VAR8											
VAR9											
VAR10											
VAR11											
VAR12											
VAR13											
VAR14											
VAR15											
VAR16											
VAR17											
VAR18											
VAR19											
VAR20											
VAR21											
VAR22											
VAR23											
VAR24											
VAR25											
VAR26											
VAR27											
VAR28											
VAR29											
VAR30											
VAR31											
VAR32											
VAR33											
VAR34											
VAR35	0.57										
VAR36	0.66	0.46									
VAR37	0.71	0.43	0.50								
VAR38	0.35	0.47	0.54	0.45							
VAR39	0.20	0.32	-0.15	-0.08	-0.17						
VAR40	0.44	0.59	0.51	0.27	0.15	0.17					
VAR41	0.32	0.68	0.54	0.22	0.60	0.08	0.48				
VAR42	0.45	0.46	0.60	-0.08	0.12	0.14	0.64	0.38			
VAR43	0.29	0.13	0.42	0.32	0.17	0.01	0.17	0.39	-0.03		
VAR44	0.56	0.42	0.55	0.60	0.31	-0.14	0.32	0.44	-0.01	0.62	
VAR45	0.30	0.18	0.38	0.41	0.32	-0.24	0.38	0.31	-0.13	0.65	0.80
VAR46	0.65	0.38	0.59	0.39	0.06	0.16	0.40	0.30	0.33	0.69	0.66
VAR47	0.40	0.50	0.20	0.38	0.05	0.34	0.29	0.29	0.08	0.60	0.30
VAR48	0.16	0.01	0.20	0.25	0.05	0.41	0.24	0.21	-0.16	0.50	0.75
VAR49	0.62	0.37	0.55	0.65	0.58	-0.10	0.25	0.48	-0.05	0.75	0.83
VAR50	0.35	0.31	0.15	0.43	0.21	-0.03	0.04	0.35	-0.29	0.61	0.76
VAR51	0.11	0.26	0.10	-0.03	-0.00	0.54	0.03	0.24	0.13	0.44	-0.14
VAR52	0.46	0.45	0.33	0.48	-0.09	0.22	0.31	0.09	0.11	0.57	0.50
VAR53	0.41	0.42	0.10	0.48	0.05	0.14	0.12	0.25	-0.10	0.65	0.42
VAR54	0.25	0.38	0.13	0.42	0.10	0.00	0.27	0.36	-0.13	0.71	0.56

Table 15

(Continued)

	VAR45	VAR46	VAR47	VAR48	VAR49	VAR50	VAR51	VAR52	VAR53	VAR54
VAR1										
VAR2										
VAR3										
VAR4										
VAR5										
VAR6										
VAR7										
VAR8										
VAR9										
VAR10										
VAR11										
VAR12										
VAR13										
VAR14										
VAR15										
VAR16										
VAR17										
VAR18										
VAR19										
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VAR31										
VAR32										
VAR33										
VAR34										
VAR35										
VAR36										
VAR37										
VAR38										
VAR39										
VAR40										
VAR41										
VAR42										
VAR43										
VAR44										
VAR45										
VAR46	0.55									
VAR47	0.26	0.56								
VAR48	0.82	0.51	0.00							
VAR49	0.82	0.64	0.42	0.60						
VAR50	0.73	0.63	0.43	0.72	0.76					
VAR51	-0.20	0.33	0.75	-0.41	0.07	0.00				
VAR52	0.39	0.67	0.82	0.18	0.42	0.51	0.42			
VAR53	0.30	0.52	0.85	0.19	0.55	0.56	0.55	0.71		
VAR54	0.53	0.37	0.77	0.35	0.59	0.56	0.35	0.68	0.84	